DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 339 134 EA 023 558

AUTHOR Bray, Mark
TITLE New Resources for Education: Community Management and Financing of Schools in Less Developed Countries.
INSTITUTION Commonwealth Secretariat, London (England).
REPORT NO ISBN-0-85092-284-4
PUB DATE 86
NOTE 88p.; Drawings by Meshack Asara illustrate the document.
AVAILABLE FROM Commonwealth Secretariat Publications, Marlborough House, London SW1Y 5HX England, United Kingdom (4.00 pounds).
PUB TYPE Books (010) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Community Support; Construction Management; *Developing Nations; *Economic Development; *Educational Economics; *Educational Finance; Elementary Secondary Education; Financial Support; Fund Raising; School Administration

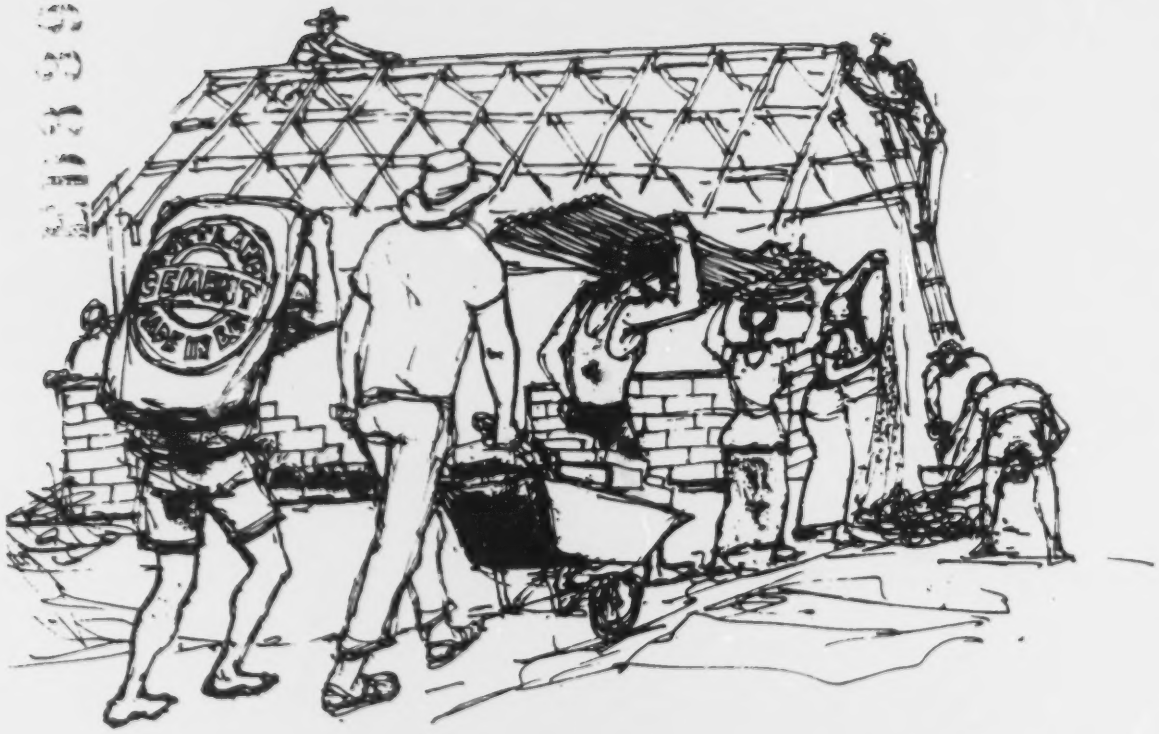
ABSTRACT

Strategies for community management and financing of educational systems in developing countries are presented in this book, which is the outcome of a Commonwealth Secretariat workshop and associated studies. Part 1 deals with preliminary issues such as different types of communities and schools and reasons for community support. Part 2 provides information on establishing and running a school, including registration procedures, buildings and construction, school communities and institutional management, and financial accounting guidelines. Information on raising resources is offered in the third part, such as community level fundraising, government grants, and opportunities for outside support. Part 4 discusses quality controls at the government, agency, and community levels. An annotated bibliography of 23 sources is included. (LMI)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

New Resources for Education:

Community Management and Financing of Schools in Less Developed Countries



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

C. E. Coombe

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

EA 023 558

Commonwealth Secretariat

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

New Resources for Education:

Community Management and Financing of Schools in Less Developed Countries

Text by:

Mark Bray

University of Hong Kong

Drawings by:

Meshack Asare

Islington Africa Project, London

Commonwealth Secretariat

3

First published 1986 by
The Commonwealth Secretariat,
Marlborough House,
Pall Mall,
London SW1Y 5HX.

Typeset and printed in Hong Kong by Colorcraft Ltd.

Any expressions of opinion in this publication are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

Governments of developing Commonwealth countries wishing to reproduce the material in this publication in whole or in part, in any language, should inform the Commonwealth Secretariat, which may be able to offer them some assistance in doing so.

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

Bray, Mark
New resources for education
1. Education — Community — Management
2. Education — Community — Financing
I. Title

ISBN 0 85092 284 4

© Copyright Commonwealth Secretariat 1986

May be purchased from Commonwealth Secretariat Publications
Marlborough House
London SW1Y 5HX

Price £4.00

Contents

		Page
	Foreword	7
I.	**Preliminary Issues**	**11**
	1. Different Types of Community and School	11
	2. The Reasons for Community Support	15
II.	**Establishing and Running a School**	**18**
	3. Procedures for Registration	18
	4. Buildings and Construction	27
	5. School Committees and Institutional Management	35
	6. Guidelines for Financial Accounting	40
III.	**Raising Resources**	**48**
	7. Raising Money at the Community Level	48
	8. Generating Other Resources at the Community Level	56
	9. Government Grants	61
	10. Opportunities for Outside Help	65
IV.	**Controls on Quality**	**70**
	11. Government Controls	70
	12. Agency and Community Controls	76
V.	**Concluding Observations**	**80**
	Annotated Bibliography	82

Foreword

In recent few years, many countries have found it increasingly difficult to finance their education systems. By definition, available resources in less developed countries are scarce, and education is expensive. The combination of high population growth and the global economic crisis of the 1980s has placed many governments under severe strain.

At the 1984 ninth Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers, in Cyprus, delegates recommended that 'a study should be conducted on a cross-country basis of the experience within the Commonwealth of raising additional and alternative funds for education' (Commonwealth Secretariat 1985, p. 33). One focus of discussion had been the extent to which extra resources could be generated by communities.

To implement the conference recommendation, the Commonwealth Secretariat commissioned a set of studies and organised a workshop in Botswana to discuss the issues. The workshop was held from June 12–19 1985, and was mainly attended by representatives of governments, academic specialists, churches and other voluntary agencies from the neighbouring Commonwealth countries of Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. With the help of additional funding from the Economic Development Institute of the World Bank, it became possible to extend the scope of participation. This resource book is one outcome of the workshop and the associated studies. Most of its content was discussed at the workshop, and it draws considerable inspiration from participants' views.

Community resourcing of schools has implications beyond the purely financial. For example, increased community funding can improve linkages between schools and the general public. It is frequently suggested that people value services more highly and take a stronger interest in the nature of the services when they directly contribute finance or labour, however small in amount.

Active community involvement can also strengthen support for teachers and children, and it can help improve supervision and accountability in the school system.

At the same time, the outcomes of community financing projects are not always entirely positive. Heavy financial demands fall with unequal weight on different sections of society, and can become a severe burden on individuals. Where communities are divided, self-help schemes may intensify rivalry rather than promote solidarity. The Harambee schools in Kenya, for example, have tended to be qualitatively poor by comparison with government schools, and have done little to reduce regional inequalities.

The book has four main audiences:

1. government officers in headquarters who want to know both how to improve strategies for collecting resources at the local level and what dangers to avoid,
2. district level government officers who have similar concerns,
3. leaders in churches and other non-government organisations who wish to establish or expand schools with government and community support, and
4. community leaders with similar objectives at the local level.

Systems of community financing tend to be highly culture-specific, which makes it hard to generalise. One group of West African societies, for example, generates funds through systems of age groups which may have no exact counterparts elsewhere. Religious groups with strong interests in education operate in some areas but not in others. And while some societies are so cohesive that they can require even their non-resident sons and daughters to contribute to schools back home, others command weaker loyalties and find it hard to encourage contributions even from resident community members. Clearly the examples and suggestions in the book must be adapted in different contexts.

Yet many of the points discussed in this book clearly *are* generally applicable. For example:

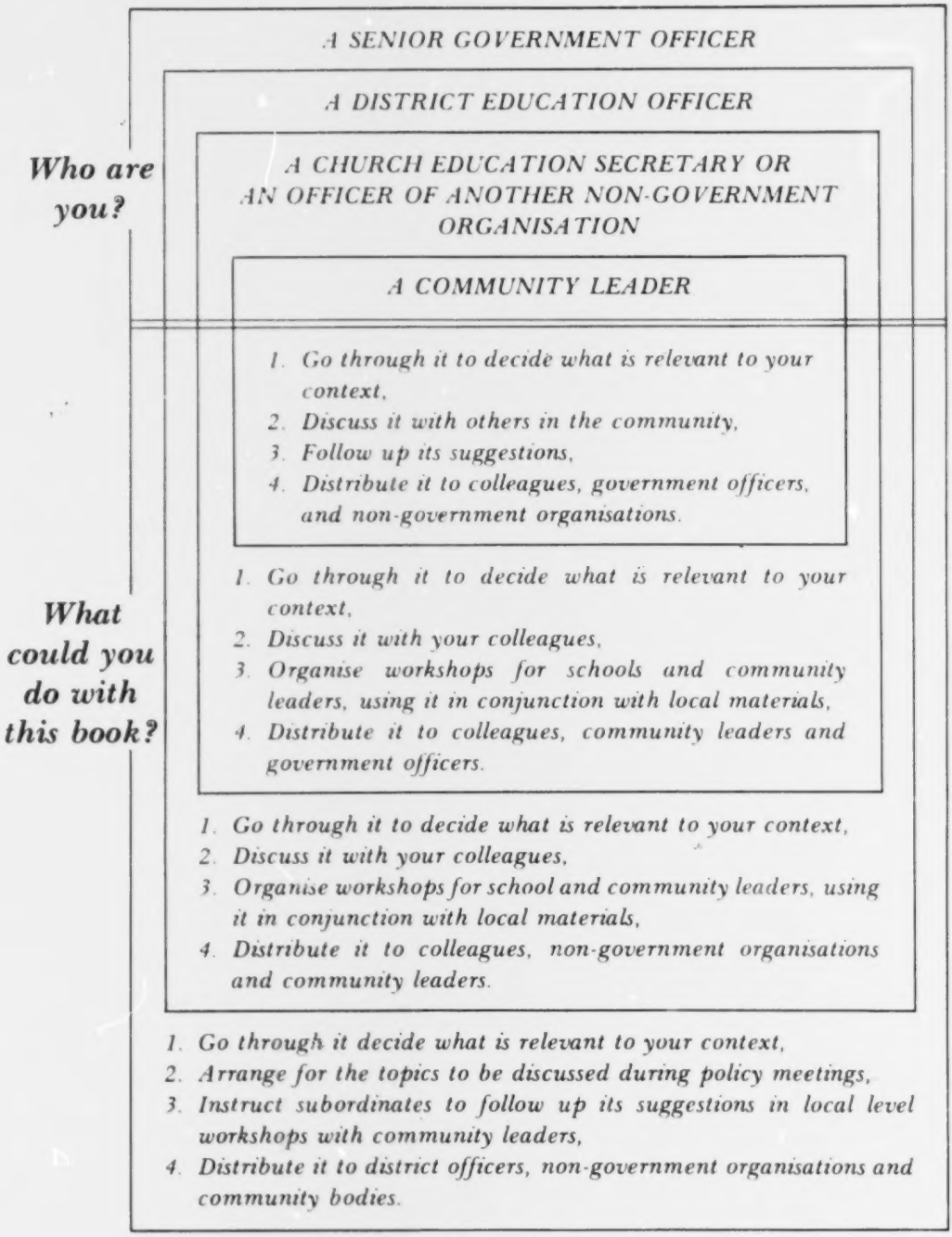
* in all countries there is scope for increasing the resources provided in education by communities,

* all governments should collect basic information on self-help operations,
* all governments need to exercise controls to regulate the provision of schooling and its quality,
* all schools need to be properly managed, and
* all schools should operate a system of careful accounting.

Finally, although this resource book concentrates on community financing in primary and secondary education, readers may also find it valuable in nonformal and vocational education projects, and even in schemes outside the education sector altogether.

Peter R.C. Williams,
Director, Education Programme,
Human Resource Development Group,
Commonwealth Secretariat.

How to Use this Book


Who are you?
A SENIOR GOVERNMENT OFFICER
A DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
A CHURCH EDUCATION SECRETARY OR AN OFFICER OF ANOTHER NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANISATION
A COMMUNITY LEADER
1. Go through it to decide what is relevant to your context,
2. Discuss it with others in the community,
3. Follow up its suggestions,
4. Distribute it to colleagues, government officers, and non-government organisations.
What could you do with this book?
1. Go through it to decide what is relevant to your context,
2. Discuss it with your colleagues,
3. Organise workshops for schools and community leaders, using it in conjunction with local materials,
4. Distribute it to colleagues, community leaders and government officers.
1. Go through it to decide what is relevant to your context,
2. Discuss it with your colleagues,
3. Organise workshops for school and community leaders, using it in conjunction with local materials,
4. Distribute it to colleagues, non-government organisations and community leaders.
1. Go through it decide what is relevant to your context,
2. Arrange for the topics to be discussed during policy meetings,
3. Instruct subordinates to follow up its suggestions in local level workshops with community leaders,
4. Distribute it to district officers, non-government organisations and community bodies.

Part I:
Preliminary Issues

Chapter 1:
Different Types of Community and School

This chapter begins by outlining the different types of community with which the book is concerned. It then looks at different types of school.

1. Different Types of Community

A community may be defined as a group of people who share social, economic and cultural interests. Its members recognise social obligations to each other, hold at least some common values, and identify themselves with each other as 'we'. They normally have some shared institutions.

This overall definition embraces the following types and examples of communities:

(a) A *geographic* community refers to all the individuals living in a village, rural district or urban suburb. In many countries, schools have been formed and are supported by village development associations and by local parents' groups.

In some situations all the people in a country or even a continent may see themselves as a community, though in this

book we are less concerned with global concepts.

(b) The word 'community' can also describe *ethnic, racial and religious* groups within a wider society. Thus it can refer to the Tamil, Gikuyu or Brazilian-Indian peoples, for example; to Chinese, Europeans or Asians; or to Christians, Mormons, Jews or Muslims. Within the Christian community may exist sub-communities of Roman Catholics, Baptists, Methodists, Anglicans and so on; and within the Muslim community may exist sub-communities of Ismailis, Ahmadiyya, Sufis and so on.

Whether individuals identify themselves as members of the overall religion or of the sect usually depends on their numbers and the context. If people are a minority and see themselves as fundamentally different from others, they are likely to join together more cohesively.

(c) Some communities sub-divide themselves by *sex* and *age* for particular purposes. In all parts of the world males and females, and children, youths, middle-aged and elderly, meet separately for some purposes. Sometimes, for example, women's groups are a powerful force. And some West African communities are sub-divided into age groups which play a major role in generating resources for schools.

(d) Communities may also be based on *occupations*. For example, many commercial companies, universities and missions run schools for the children of their workers. The Rotary and Lions Clubs are communities of businessmen which do not usually run their own schools but often provide grants for specific projects.

(e) Communities can also arise from shared *family concerns*. Among the most important for school support are Parents' Associations, based on adults' shared involvement with the welfare of their children.

(f) Some schools are run by *educational trusts* which were created to fund and run them and which have no other community functions. One example is the Tanzania Parents' Association (TAPA), which runs nearly 50 schools. In all parts of the world one can find similar non-profit-making organisations.

(g) Many schools receive support from *Old Students' Associa-*

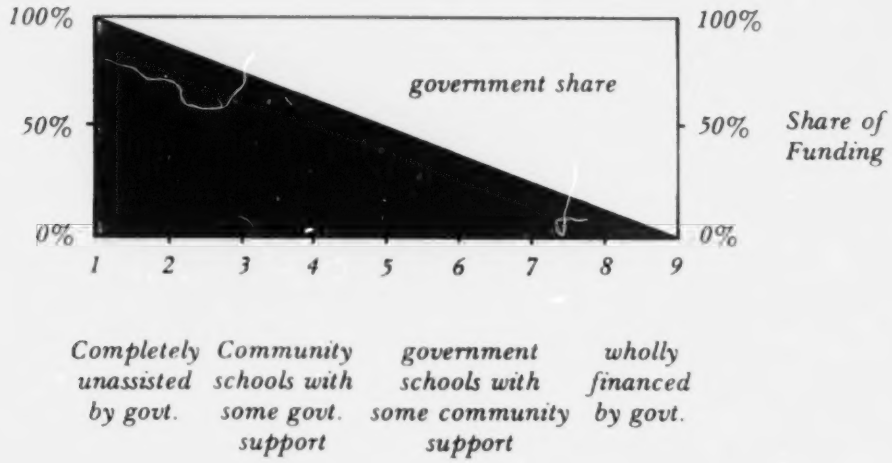
tions. In this case, the communities are based on former membership of the schools.

An individual may simultaneously belong to several communities, for there is considerable *overlap*, and there may be communities within communities. It is also clear that communities may *operate in widely differing ways*. Whereas in some communities both membership and activities are voluntary, in others they are compulsory. Thus an individual may decide whether or not to join the Rotary Club and whether or not to support the Club's assistance to a school, but people cannot decide on their birthplaces, and social sanctions may make it almost impossible for individuals to opt out of village development association projects unless they are prepared to leave the area altogether.

2. Different Types of School

Among primary and secondary schools, which are the main concern of this book, there are many different systems of ownership, financing and management. In some cases, primary schools are owned by local governments but rely on communities to help with buildings and management. In other cases, schools are completely owned by communities and are entirely outside the government framework.

Community and Government Financing



Ownership, management and financing could each be analysed separately. For simplicity, the diagram on the previous page concentrates only on financing. At one end of the chart are unaided schools completely financed by village development committees, churches, or other community bodies, and at the other end are schools completely financed by government. Between these extremes are community/church schools which receive some government subsidies and, further to the right in the diagram, schools which are incorporated into the public system but for which communities are responsible for part of the costs.

This diagram may not closely reflect all the school categories of every country. In some countries there may not be any schools which are 'wholly financed by government'. In other countries all schools may have some government support and there may not be any completely unassisted institutions. Also the model is very simple, and excludes private, profit-making schools. Nevertheless it is useful for present purposes.

What Types of School?

This book is chiefly concerned with collective *action to finance schools, not just with individual fee-paying by parents or pupils. We are excluding from discussion private schools which charge fees, are owned by commercial businessmen, and are run for profit. We are also excluding fees that are imposed by central governments as an alternative form of taxation.*

However, fees which are set by non-profit-making institutions at the school level are *relevant to our discussion, even when the schools are owned by the government.*

Chapter 2: The Reasons for Community Support

Community provision often starts at a time when government resources are not available. During the last century many governments refused to support education because they did not consider it necessary or desirable. Today, governments do recognise their responsibilities; but many are unable to stretch their resources far enough.

Most communities prefer governments, with their greater resources, to provide all the facilities and staff for their schools. When funds are short, though, communities may decide to bridge the gap so that their children do not suffer.

Sometimes, the problem is worse than a shortage of materials in the school: the absence of any school at all. In this case, a community may resort to self-help to get something started, hoping that the government will take over the school later. Many schools in the public system can trace their history back to a time when they were unaided.

Community Support within the National System

Most community support seeks to 'bridge the gap' between what the government can provide and what the communities want to be provided. Communities erect extra buildings, employ teachers, buy books etc. to supplement what already exists.

Sometimes, communites have to bridge the gap by establishing a completely new school. Usually, these communities are keen for the government to take over their school as soon as possible.

In other cases, government funds are available but communities refuse to accept them. The communities choose to establish schools outside the public system because they want to express their separate identity. Such cases are especially common in religious communities. Churches, for example, may accept financial help only if it does not have too many 'strings' attached and if they can retain control of curriculum and staffing.

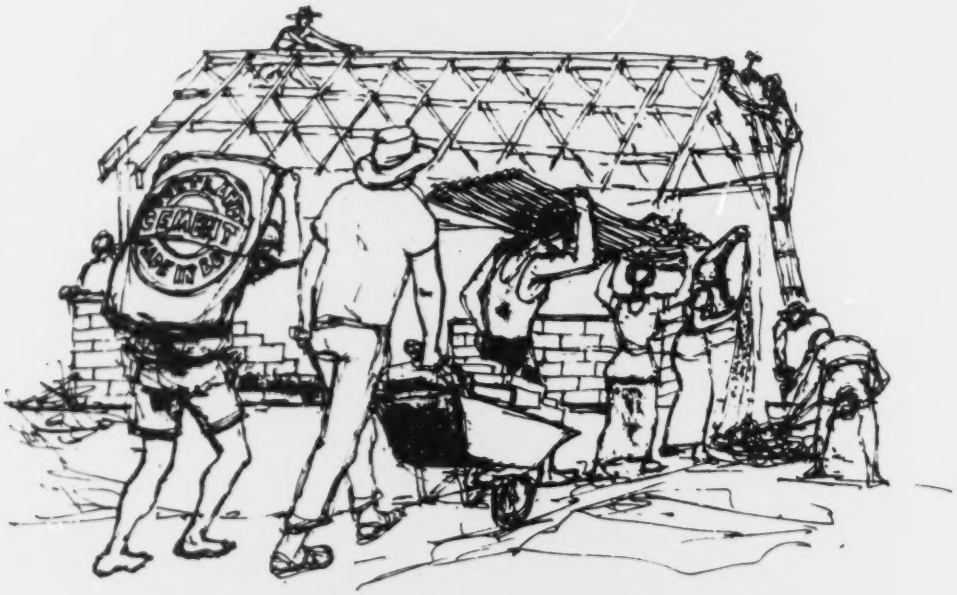
However, the existence of schools outside the main education system can create problems for government planners and for pupils who want to transfer between the systems. Also, some community schools are established for petty rather than noble reasons. Community leaders may open schools only to advance their political ambitions, and some communities may support institutions only because of rivalries with their neighbours. In these cases schools may divide society and be uneconomic in size. Governments may need to exercise controls and find a balance between encouraging community vitality and discouraging social divisions. Issues of government control are considered at several points in this book, particularly Chapter 11.

SDAs as an Example of an Independent Community

In many countries, the Seventh-day Adventist church runs its own schools completely separate from the main education system. In Papua New Guinea, the SDAs even have their own university. Some funds come from abroad, but a lot is provided by local church members. The SDAs wish to remain separate so that they can control their teachers and have their own curriculum.

Some government officers have misgivings about the lack of unity in the system. The different curriculum makes it hard for SDA children to transfer into government schools, and the government officers are would like to have more control.

But the SDA schools in PNG operate efficiently, and are open to government inspection. And the fact that the church runs its own schools relieves the government of a burden. The official policy, therefore, is to respect the wishes of the SDA community while keeping a general eye on standards.



When communities build their own schools, they often use local materials to keep costs low.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Part II: Establishing and Running a School

Chapter 3: Procedures for Registration

Governments generally insist that all schools should be officially registered, including schools that are independently managed and financed. They do this (a) to assess the geographical coverage of education, and (b) so that they can enforce regulations on the quality of provision.

Community leaders who are considering opening schools should first obtain copies of the government regulations and application forms from their Ministry of Education. It may be convenient to approach a District Education Office first; but if no office is nearby, or if the office does not have the documents, it should be possible to obtain them by writing to the Ministry. Community leaders would be wise to discuss their intentions with education officers before submitting formal applications.

1. Stages in Approval

Most systems have several stages before a school can be fully registered. The procedure in Imo State of Nigeria may be given as an example. In Imo State the government agrees to pay all teachers once the communities have put up the schools, and the government insists on certain building designs. Such arrangement may not

apply in all countries, but the procedures for gaining permission are probably fairly typical:

(a) Applications to establish new schools should be made in the month of August, 12 months preceding the academic year in which the school is due to open (e.g. August 1988 for opening in September 1989). The forms should be submitted to the Zonal Inspector of Education, who then sends them to the State Ministry of Education with his comments.
(b) On receipt of the application, the Ministry checks whether the school conforms with government policies (i.e. whether it is in a suitable place, whether the government is able to pay the required grants, etc.).
(c) The Ministry may demand satisfactory evidence from the community that the school can actually be built, and that the community has adequate land, labour and finance. Currently it insists on the community having at least N50,000 in a bank account.
(d) The Ministry then writes to the community indicating whether or not the application is approved-in-principle.
(e) The community must accept the following conditions in writing:
    i) Government will not accept responsibilities for any school unless its phases have been completed in accordance with government specifications.
    ii) Schools must be open to students from areas other than the places where the institutions are sited.
    iii) The government will not pay compensation when it takes over a school.
    iv) Government shall be free to decide on the type of courses that the school will offer.
(f) When communities have received written permission, and in turn have given their written agreement to the rules, they may commence building.
(g) When the buildings are ready, they are inspected by the government.
(h) If the buildings are satisfactory, the government gives final approval to the school, and posts teachers to it. However, the government insists that the buildings must have reached a

satisfactory standard at least two months before the date on which the school is due to open.

2. Application Forms

Most Ministries have specific forms which must be submitted to achieve initial registration. Pages 21 and 22 show the form used by the Zimbabwe Ministry of Education. Zimbabwe has a slightly different bureaucratic procedure from Imo State, but again has similarities to other systems. It is worth nothing that:

(a) The form commences with a reference to the relevant law and regulations, which gives it a proper context.
(b) The form is carefully designed, with five parts reflecting the five stages through which it must pass before registration can be fully approved. At each stage, an officer must sign it.
(c) The person requesting registration must complete two copies of the form and submit them to the District Education Officer (DEO) responsible for the area in which the school is to be sited. The DEO makes a recommendation, and then forwards both copies to the Regional Director. In turn, the Regional Director makes a decision, retains one copy of the forms for his files, and sends the other to a Planning Officer in the Ministry.
(d) If registration is not recommended, the Regional Director should send the form back to the applicant with an explanatory letter. However, no written comments are required if registration *is* recommended. Governments in other countries might consider it desirable to require first the DEO and then the Regional Director to write a few words of justification to avoid the danger of the application being recommended simply because the officers wished to save themselves work.
(e) The form must be accompanied by a sketch map. This indicates where the school is or will be, and helps the authorities to see whether it is a suitable location in relation to other schools and to centres of population. Sketch maps may not always be very accurate, however, and the authorities should check details before putting too much trust in them.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

APPLICATION FOR THE REGISTRATION/RE-REGISTRATION OF A PRIMARY SCHOOL

Part A should be completed by the Responsible Authority and two copies of the form submitted, together with a sketch map showing the location of the school site in relation to the main access roads in the area.

(Please delete the inapplicable)

PART A

TO: DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER

.....

.....

In terms of the Education Act, 1979 and the Education (Registered Schools) Regulations, 1980, application is hereby made for the registration/re-registration of the undermentioned primary/special school, with effect from ..... and for payment of the appropriate grants.

1. *Name of School* ..... *Previous Registration No. (if any)* .....
2. *Location* .....
3. *Name of Responsible Authority* .....
4. *Address* .....
5. *Proposed initial enrolment by grade and sex:—*

   .....

   .....

   .....

   .....

   .....

   .....

6. *It is confirmed that every teacher who is employed will be a proper person with appropriate qualifications to be a teacher at the school.*
7. *The specifications for classrooms set out in Part I of the First Schedule to the Education (Registered Schools) Regulations, 1980 will be/have been met and provision will be made for the maintenance of the school. Provision will also be made in succeeding years for the additional facilities required for approved expansion.*
8. *Sanitation and a water supply will be provided and maintained to the satisfaction of the Ministry of Health in accordance with the provisions of Part II of the First Schedule to the Education (Registered Schools) Regulations, 1980.*
9. *I am aware that the school may not function until approval for it to do so has been given and that this approval is subject to the submission of a completed Buildings and Furniture Certificate (Form ED 30) and of a satisfactory Sanitation and Water Supply Certificate (Form ED 30A).*

Date ..... *Signed on behalf of the Responsible Authority* .....

Address ..... *Name (Printed)* .....

..... *Position held* .....

.....

Application for the Registration/Re-registration of a Primary School

PART B

TO: REGIONAL DIRECTOR .....

This application (two copies), together with the relevant sketch map, is forwarded and recommended/not recommended.

Date ..... *District Education Officer* .....

PART C

TO: SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION (Planning Officer)

This application for registration (one copy — plus sketch map) is recommended.

Date .....

.....

Regional Director

(NOTE: If the application cannot be recommended it should be returned to the applicant together with an explanatory letter)

PART D

TO: EDUCATION OFFICER (EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION)

Registration approved in principle with effect from ..... *including/not including the payment of grants, subject to forms ED.30 and ED.30A being satisfactory.*

Date .....

.....

Planning Officer

(N.B. Once the application has been approved in principle, the Regional Director must be informed and asked to ensure that the outstanding forms are submitted prior to the proposed date of opening of the school.)

PART E

TO: EXECUTIVE OFFICER (ADMINISTRATION)

I confirm that forms ED.1, ED.30 and ED.30(A) are satisfactory and that the school should be registered with effect from ....., *including/not including the payment of grants.*

Date .....

.....

Education Officer (Education Administration)

(f) The form also reminds the person who fills it about the agency's obligations in relation to teachers, classrooms, sanitation and water supply for both present and future needs. By signing the form, the person has provided a formal acknowledgement of awareness of the regulations and their obligations.

(g) The last two sections require officers to approve the form, first in principle and then in full following receipt of the certificates confirming that the buildings, sanitation and water supply are satisfactory.

3. Registration of Managers

Some governments also require communities to register the managers of their schools. They do this so that (a) they have proper records of who the managers are, (b) they can ensure that managers are suitable individuals/organisations, and (c) they can ensure that communities are well organised, and that managers know their responsibilities.

Pages 24 and 25 show a translation of the form used in Tanzania. The original was in Swahili. Note that in addition to the information required, the person signing the form undertakes to follow the education laws.

It must be emphasised, however, that all these regulations refer to ideal situations (see box below).

The Regulations may not Always be Followed

In the late 1960s the government of Kenya introduced a lot of regulations to control Harambee schools and rationalise the education system. But as the elections of 1969 drew near, politicians became very active in the education sector. The Ministry of Education was forced into widespread commitments of ad hoc *aid and extra teachers, with little regard for regulations and the requirements of the education plan.*

Source: Anderson (1973), p. 27.

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO BE MANAGER OF A SCHOOL

(Education Act No. 25 of 1978)

SECTION 17

To The Commissioner for Education
Ministry of Education
Dar es Salaam

u/s Regional Education Officer

PART 'A' To be filled by applicant

1. *Full name* .....
2. *Occupation / Business* .....
3. *Address (a) Business* ..... *District* ..... *Region* .....
   (b) Residence ..... *District* ..... *Region* .....
4. *Name of Proposed school* ..... *District / Town* .....
   (a) Type of school .....
   (b) Highest form (class) to be attained .....
5. *Bias to be offered* .....
   .....
6. *(a) Name of owner of school* .....
   (b) Address .....

PART 'B' If the Manager is an Organisation, this part to be filled by an authorised representative

7. *(a) Name of authorised officer* .....
   (b) Position in the Organisation .....
8. *(a) Name of Organisation* .....
   (b) Registration No. ..... *Dated* .....
   If the Organisation is not registered under any law in Tanzania, give details, objectives and structure of the organisation:
   .....
   .....
   .....

Application for Permission to be Manager of a School

PART 'C' To be filled by the applicant

9 Details of other schools managed by the applicant

Name of school	*Owner of school*	*Location*	*Address*

10 Applicant's assurance:

I confirm that the above is correct and that should I be permitted to be Manager of the school I will run the school according to Education Act No. 25 of 1978 including regulations and Ministry directives.

Signature of applicant ..... *Date* .....

PART 'D' To be filled by DEO

This application has been considered at a sitting on ..... *by the Education Authority and it is/not recommended because* .....

Date ..... *19*.... *District Education Officer* .....

SECTION 'E': Recommendation of the REO

My opinion on this application is that: .....

Date ..... *19*..... *REO* .....

PART 'E' Decision of the Commissioner for Education

I agree/disagree

Date ..... *19*..... *Commissioner for Education* .....

4. Advice to Community Leaders

* It is always desirable to have personal contact. Talk with the District Education Officer and other relevant people about your proposal before you submit it.
* Prepare yourself properly for your meetings with government officials. Bring the necessary documents with you.
* Bureaucratic processes always take time, and in some systems papers often get lost or mislaid. When you request registration, ask how long the process of approval is likely to take. You may be advised that committees only meet at certain times of the year and that you should expect delays. If you have not received a response within a reasonable time, politely approach the authorities to ask about progress.
* The example from Kenya in the box on page 23 shows that sometimes it is possible to sidestep the regulations. This is dangerous, however. The government could later decide to clamp down, and the community might find that it had wasted a lot of effort.

5. Advice to Governments

* Make sure that copies of the regulations and necessary forms are readily available at the community level.
* Avoid forms that are complicated and hard to understand.
* Ensure that applications are actioned thoroughly but rapidly.
* Do not allow applications to be scrapped just because of minor details. If some essential detail is missing, take steps to get the information. Be flexible.
* Keep communities informed about their applications — what they are waiting for and when they can expect it.
* Be sympathetic to communities' problems. Offer helpful technical and management advice when it is needed.
* The example from Kenya in the box on page 23 shows that official regulations may not always be followed. In a highly politicised situation, there may not be much that Ministry officers can do about it. But District Education Officers and other personnel can at least monitor the situation. And if they think a school is starting illegally, they can report it to their superiors.

Chapter 4:
Buildings and Construction

Questions on building and construction should be addressed from both the government viewpoint and the community one. This chapter considers each in turn.

1. The Government Viewpoint

Should governments insist on minimum standards in self-help projects and on school buildings which resemble the conventional models? Or should they accept all types and qualities of construction? There is no 'right' answer to these questions. Governments must consider the issues carefully and adopt policies which they consider workable and sensible.

1. Insistence on Minimum Standards?

Governments which insist on minimum standards of construction usually do so in order to ensure that learning conditions are not compromised. They point out that:

(a) unless roofs are properly constructed there is a danger of pupils getting wet during classes and ther. of catching colds because they have to sit still for lessons, and that roofs may collapse or be blown off in storms,
(b) furniture, books and equipment are expensive, and should be protected from rain, termites and thieves,
(c) rooms full of school children require particular attention to ventilation,
(d) villagers often do not know about chalkboards and where to locate them to avoid glare (an especially difficult task in round buildings),
(e) village houses — even for chiefs and headmen — often exclude so much daylight that prolonged reading and writing

is difficult and bad for the eyes.

(f) smart buildings can be a source of pride, and can raise the prestige of education, and

(g) some buildings may be cheap to construct but have such high maintenance costs and short life-spans that it is often wiser to build more expensive but sturdy ones.

2. Acceptance and Encouragement of Local Designs?

At the same time, governments should be careful to avoid imposing high standards on communities. Arguments favouring local designs are:

(a) It is important to encourage and respect local cultures, of which building designs are a prominent part. Because of its status and role, it can be especially desirable for the school to be built in a local style.

(b) In many remote areas, building out of locally available materials is the *only* way that schools can be built. It is impossible to carry roofing sheets, metal windows and cement to such remote areas.

(c) Villagers often find it easier to maintain buildings when they are familiar with them and have built them out of local rather than imported materials.

(d) Use of community labour usually saves money. Payment of contractors to erect buildings places a heavy financial burden on the communities. Also, if the contractors are incompetent or come from neighbouring villages rather than from the communities themselves, their work can lead to disputes and social divisions.

(e) If a school already has some buildings which do not meet the government's standards, demolition of these buildings can do more harm than good. It can destroy the very spirit that the government is seeking to encourage.

(f) Many government buildings are themselves of a low standard, and it could be both hypocritical and unfair to require self-help communities to put up buildings of a higher standard than government ones.

If communities are to be totally responsible for the design and construction, the government must accept that the schools may

neither look like a conventional ones nor comply with established standards for school design and construction.

3. Try to Achieve the Best of Both Worlds?

(a) Working Sharing. Some governments combine their own work with self-help. Swaziland practice, for example, has been for the government to construct the floors, pillars and roofs of classrooms and then to require communities to provide the walls. In Malawi standard classrooms have been built with the government providing most materials and communities providing labour, sand and bricks. In both countries these schemes have encountered the risk that the classrooms will still not be built properly, or will not be built at all, but they have given communities 'head starts' and encouragement.

(b) Technical Advice. Even if governments do not insist on minimum standards, they can give technical advice. Here are six examples:

* Traditional mud roofs sometimes leak or collapse during heavy rain. In Afghanistan, mud roofs have been made waterproof by insertion of a very thin sheet of plastic, 10 cms below the surface. In Northern Nigeria, brushing a silicone-based liquid on the roofs was found to be equally effective.
* In parts of Angola, the thatch on round mud buildings used for schools was replaced by hollow, burned clay tiles which formed a waterproof dome.
* Architects in Pakistan have successfully recommended designs that are more resistant to earthquakes than are normal classrooms.
* The CINVA-ram machine for making stabilised soil blocks has helped villagers build schools all over the world. In Papua New Guinea the machine has been modified to ensure that the same pressure is applied to all blocks and the products are uniform.
* Governments can recommend designs which allow schools to expand in a planned way.
* Governments can offer advice on contracts between communities and local contractors, to help ensure that buildings are reasonable in price, are of an adequate standard, and are completed on time.

However, experience also stresses the need for caution:

* In one traditional design, the feet of walls wear away because water splashes from an overhanging roof. A government architect once insisted on parapet construction to prevent this. His design worked well until the spring: water from melting snow could not escape over the edge of the roofs, and the buildings collapsed.
* Villagers are not always able either to understand technical drawings or to carry out the construction of sophisticated designs. In some cases either the buildings have not been put up properly, or skilled labour has had to be hired from outside.

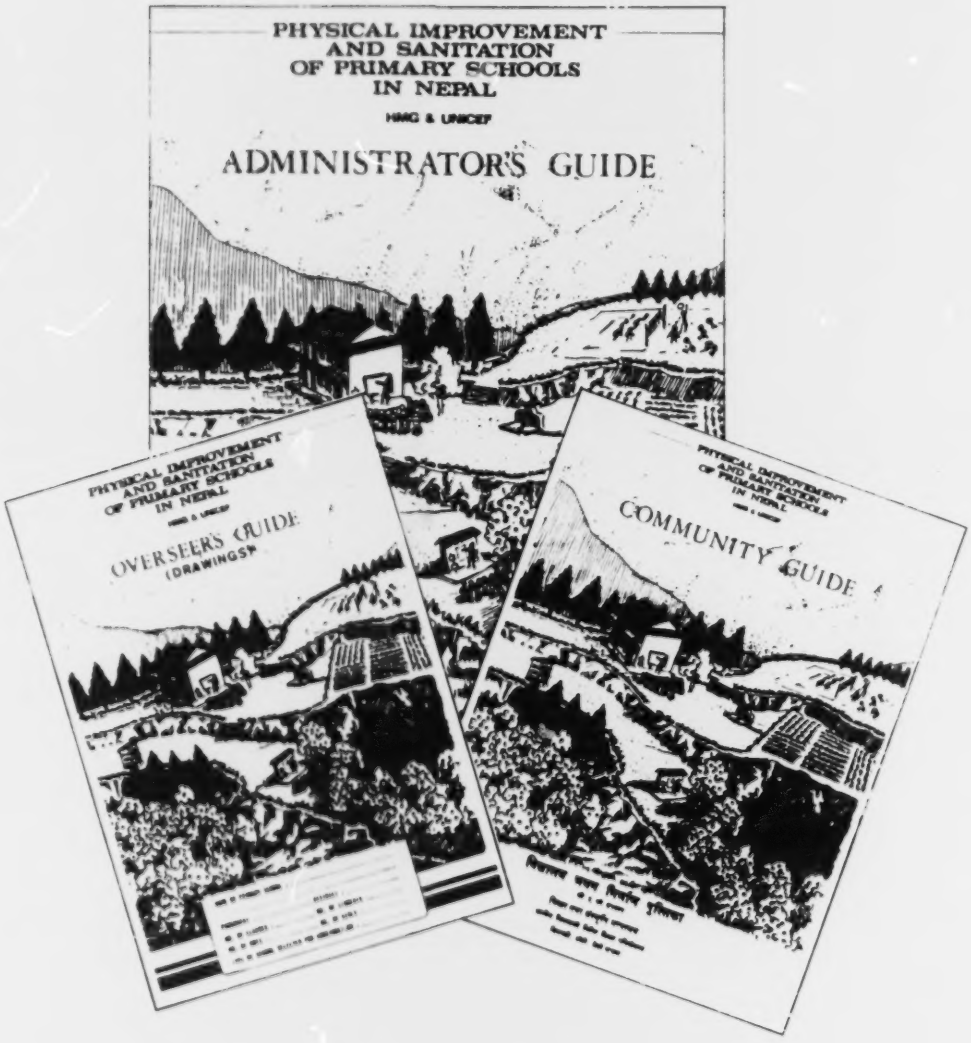
The problems of complex designs can be reduced in several ways:

(i) Governments can accompany building materials with simple and well illustrated *booklets*. Left hand pages might be in English and right hand pages could carry the same message in the local language. Different booklets can be written for different people. Page 31 shows a set of booklets written in Nepal for administrators, buildings overseers, and community leaders.

(ii) Governments can employ *technical advisers*, whose job is to travel round communities and work with villagers. The advisers require salaries and travelling allowances, but this money can be a good investment.

The Personality and Role of a Good Technical Adviser

Where participatory planning and execution is important, the role of the government's technical adviser is critical. The best advisers are skilled, energetic and sympathetic, and speak the local languages. They attend planning meetings in their villages, and remain silent until a useful opportunity occurs to intervene with a specific suggestion. There is no place for what in one country are known as 'trousered gentlemen', who arrive in large cars, are in a hurry, and expect to be listened to. The adviser in a successful project is no more than one person in a village team.



The government of Nepal, in conjunction with UNICEF, has produced a set of three manuals: for administrators, construction overseers, and community leaders.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Points to be Listed in a Handbook on Building Construction

(a) Site Preparation

1. *Clear site of all rubbish and grass.*
2. *Strip site of top soil (average of 6 inches or 150 mm deep).*
3. *Level site.*
4. *Set out building.*

(b) Foundations

5. *Excavate trenches for foundations.*
6. *Lay the concrete foundations. The proportions and the means of mixing, placing and curing the concrete should all be described.*
7. *Build the foundation walls. The bonding and mortar proportions should be described.*
8. *Spread, level and compact filling between the foundation walls. The importance of compacting the filling in layers to avoid future settlement of the floor slab should be stressed.*
9. *Apply ant-proofing solution to the surface of the filling and tops of foundation walls. Warnings should be given that the ant-proofing solution is poisonous. The method of mixing and applying the solution should be described: i.e. make a rough framework of one square metre, apply the specified number of litres within that area, move framework to adjacent area, repeat until the whole of that area has been covered.*

(c) Floors and Walls

10. *Erect formwork for edge of slab.*
11. *Lay concrete floor. The proportions and means of mixing, placing and curing should all be described.*
12. *Build walling. The bonding, mortar proportions and use of wire-ties should all be described.*

(d) Doors, Windows and Roof

13. *Fix door and window frames. The fixing of the lugs, pointing around the frames and method of forming arches and lintels should be described. The bracing of metal door frames to ensure squareness to receive the door should be emphasised.*
14. *Construct truss. The importance of correct nailing should be emphasised.*
15. *Erect truss.*
16. *Fix and level purlins. The importance of fixing the purlins with the narrow width supporting the roof sheeting should be emphasised.*
17. *Secure purlins and truss with hoop iron.*
18. *Fix roof covering. If the covering is fixed to large span purlins (e.g. the classroom block), the importance of propping the purlin to the floor should be emphasised. This prevents 'bounce' in the purlin when the covering is being nailed, ensuring a sound fixing and reducing the risk of loss of the roof during high winds. Lapping of the roof sheets should be described.*

(e) Finishing

19. *Apply plaster to walls. The proportions and means of mixing and applying should be described.*
20. *Lay floor paving. The proportions and means of mixing and applying should be described.*
21. *Fix glass in windows. Back-puttying and puttying should be described.*
22. *Hang doors and fix ironmongery.*
23. *Paint and decorate. The use of different materials, e.g. the items to be finished with gloss paint, should be indicated.*
24. *Clean out the building.*

(c) Purchase or Donation of Special Supplies. Items like plastic sheeting, silicone liquid and block-making machines may be hard for ordinary villagers to purchase. Governments can facilitate self-help construction either by helping communities to buy these items or by donating them. The best person to take responsibility for purchase or donation would be the technical adviser.

If the government decides to donate the items, it could encounter a budgetary problem. Since by definition the projects are to be low-cost ones, it might be reasonable to set aside one per cent of the cost of a conventional building for items identified by a technical adviser as essential to the project. This would require clear guidelines on which the adviser can and cannot supply. The adviser should not be put in the position of one who comes 'bearing gifts'. As projects progress and experience is gained, the one per cent figure might be modified.

A Final Warning

Governments must be quite clear about the objectives, costs and benefits of their schemes. Sometimes it is better to use contractors rather than to ask villagers to do the work themselves, even when village labour is unpaid. This is because the quality of work done by contractors may be better, and the buildings may last longer. This can be illustrated as follows:

	Villager-Built Units	Contractor-Built Units
Capital cost	$7,000	$10,500
Life expectancy	10 years	20 years
Maintenance costs	$150 p.a.	$100 p.a.

Although in this case the villager-built units have a lower initial cost, their life expectancy is shorter and their maintenance costs higher. Because of this, it is arguable that the contractor-built units are a better investment in the example cited.

This argument only views the situation from one cost angle; and project designers may feel that the benefits from involvement of villagers outweigh the costs of inefficiency. Nevertheless, the costing emphasises the need for careful evaluation at the start, and warns against the assumption that unpaid village labour is necessarily cheaper than commercial contracting.

II. The Community Viewpoint

Obviously, communities have to work within the government framework. If they are required to use standard designs, the range of options open to them is rather limited. But if governments allow communities to choose their own designs, they have more choice.

Some of the points to which communities should pay particular attention have already been drawn out in the previous section. Three points are worth highlighting again:

1. ***Design:***
   * Communities may decide to build in the traditional style, to assert their cultural identity, save money, and make construction easier. Or they may decide that modern buildings are preferable because that is how the 'best' schools are built. It may be easier to attract good teachers if they are given modern houses.
   * Communities should pay careful attention to ventilation and lighting, to the positioning of chalkboards, etc.

2. ***Costs:***
   * Communities should be aware of the recurrent costs of certain styles of building. Estimation of capital costs tells only half the story. Traditional buildings may be cheap to construct but require replacement within a few years. Glass windows may look nice but easily get broken.
   * Use of community labour usually saves money, but it requires careful planning and supervision. Sometimes, better value can be obtained from a contractor.

3. ***Quality of Workmanship:***
   * If they do employ contractors, communities should assess the reliability of local firms. If the local contractors are unreliable, they may be faced with a difficult decision. They may decide to support the local economy at the cost of slow or poor quality construction, or they may decide to give the work to outside contractors.
   * Communities should consult their District Education Officers to find out if any grants or technical assistance are available to them.

Chapter 5:
School Committees and Institutional Management

In many countries, both government and non-government schools have their own committees or boards of governors. These bodies have a strong role in community management and financing.

1. Purpose

In most systems, the headteachers are responsible for the day-to-day running of their schools, but the committees are responsible for:

(a) generating local support for the schools,
(b) representing their communities and making members' views known to the headteachers and staffs,
(c) reporting the concerns and problems of the teachers to the communities,
(d) encouraging enrolment of pupils,
(e) planning the overall development of the schools, and
(f) checking on the performance of teachers and pupils.

Anderson's comments on the Kenyan system provide a useful example:

> Ideally, respected and responsible people are chosen, and the committee becomes the focal point for educational interest in the area. It is the official body for negotiations with the educational authorities, the local council, self-help committees, and through the local chief, the government administration, in all matters concerning the school.
>
> In conjunction with the headmaster, the committee also

determines the type of support which parents will give the school, for instance, by arranging work days to do such tasks as constructing or repairing buildings or digging latrines. In cases where parents fail to turn up, the committee usually imposes a fine as a form of discipline.

The committee may arrange money collections amongst parents to provide for building materials, and it has to account for the funds raised and used. Further, it has to keep the parents informed about school affairs, arrange for parents' visiting days and parent/teacher meetings, and also keep the headmaster and teachers informed of the parents' views of how the school is being run. (Anderson 1973, p. 36)

Some committees work very well, but others suffer from personal and parochial rivalries and from the incompetence of their members. Where headteachers and committees make genuine efforts to cooperate, very successful relationships can be developed between the schools and their communities. On the other hand, sometimes a committee becomes split or loses the confidence of a section of the parents. Then a time-consuming process of negotiation and reconciliation has to take place. The District Education Officer may act as a mediator, arranging meetings at which grievances can be aired and arguments settled, and perhaps organising new elections.

2. Organisation

In many countries, requirements on the organisation of school committees are laid down in the education law. Anybody who is concerned with school management, or who is thinking about opening a new school, should read the current Education Act very carefully. Most acts are boring and complicated, and people not already familiar with the laws may find it useful to discuss questions with education officers.

Although laws in different countries may require addition or modification to the following list, several points are worth bearing in mind:

(a) ***Constitution:*** Each committee should have a written constitution setting out the number of members, their powers

and functions. The constitution should indicate the minimum number of people required for a quorum in a meeting. It should be comprehensive, but it should also be clear. It might be best for the constitution to be written in the local language.

(b) ***Composition:***

* Committees should have representatives from the main sections in the community served by the school, i.e. the different residential areas, clans/tribes, religions and sexes.
* It is often useful to make several 'political' appointments of important local leaders who can wield influence on behalf of the school.
* The headteacher of the school should be a committee member, and it may also be useful to appoint another teachers' representative.
* Some governments insist that their District Education Officers should be members of secondary school committees.
* There should always be some parents on the committee.
* In many systems the government reserves the right of final approval of school committees, at least in aided schools. Often this is just a routine measure, but the provision is a sensible one. It allows the government to intervene if it thinks that committees are improperly constituted or are not satisfactorily representative of the communities that they are supposed to serve.

(c) ***Tenure and Elections:*** The constitution should indicate the length of office and procedures for appointment of members. It is common for members to be elected for two or three year periods, with the possibility of renewal. Many communities elect members by show of hands at public meetings, but some prefer secret ballots.

(d) ***Size:*** Each committee should have at least five members. Large committees may be cumbersome and hard to operate, but they have the benefit of involving more people. If a committee has more than 10 members, it should consider forming sub-committees to take charge of particular aspects, such as buildings, recruitment of pupils, and fund-raising.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

At community meetings the women should be fully represented too.

(e) ***Officers:*** Each committee should appoint from its members a Chairperson, Secretary and Treasurer, plus any other office bearers it considers necessary. To avoid concentration of power and conflict of interests, the headteacher is often excluded from the position of Chairperson.

(f) ***Frequency of Meetings:*** The committee should meet at least once a term, and more frequently if necessary.

(g) ***Minutes:*** After each meeting, the minutes should be written and circulated. Governments may require the minutes to be in the national language so that officials can read them. Alternatively, governments may allow committees to decide on their own languages. It is often best for the minutes to be in local languages.

(h) ***Accounts:*** The committee should keep accounts and arrange for them to be inspected by an independent body or person. It is best if this happens each year. Some governments require committees to send a copy of the accounts to their District Education Officers.

(i) ***Powers:*** Committee members should realise that they are *not* responsible for internal day-to-day running of their schools. This is the job of the headteacher. She/he should accept guidance with overall policies, but specific matters of timetabling, minor pupil indiscipline, cleaning, ordering of supplies, etc. are the responsibility of the headteacher.

Chapter 6: Guidelines for Financial Accounting

In many systems, schools are required to keep accounts by law. But even where they are not required by law, clear and comprehensive accounts are essential. This is for the following reasons:

* to prevent fraud. Many schools have found themselves in trouble because of accusations that individuals have taken school money. Sometimes these accusations are justified; sometimes they are not. But in the absence of good accounts it is impossible to prove the case one way or the other.
* to allow school authorities to forecast future expenditures.
* to record how much has been contributed, and by whom.
* to help ensure a continuing flow of grants from governments and donors, who are more likely to continue support if presented with clear and regular accounts.
* to obtain loans — schools find it much easier to do this when they can show the lender that they are well organised, and know how and when they can pay back money.

Accounts do not need to be complicated. The chief items of information which they should show are how much money was received from each source and how much was spent for each purpose. They should be compiled at regular intervals. Many schools do this at the end of each month, and prepare summaries at the end of each term and year.

An example of the way accounts might be laid out is provided on the next three pages. It shows income and expenditure separately, and relates back to the balance in the previous account. The figure

KIANGARA SECONDARY SCHOOL ACCOUNTS, APRIL 1987

INCOME

1	*School Fees**		*$840 00*
2	*Rent from Teachers' Houses**		*150 00*
3	*Government Grant:*		
	1 Teachers' Salaries (3 staff)	*1284 28*	
	2 Rural Improvement Programme	*400 00*	
		1684 28	*1684 28*
4	*Others*		
	1 Sale of School Crops	*48 74*	
	2 Interest from Bank account	*268 10*	
	3 MP's donation	*500 00*	
		816 84	*816 84*
			3491 12

EXPENDITURE

1	*Salaries*		
	1 Three teachers (govt grant)	*$1284 28*	
	2 Mr Kingsly (employed by Community)	*410 10*	
	3 Miss Sule (employed by Community)	*382 80*	
	4 Miss Klaxson (typist)	*215 18*	
	5 Mr Albert (night watchman)	*170 26*	
		2462 62	*2462 62*
2	*Maintenance*		
	1 Paint for double classroom	*143 20*	
	2 Door of Miss Sule's house	*29 00*	
	3 Repairs of Form II desks	*126 40*	
		298 60	*298 60*
3	*Others*		
	1 Stationery	*200 56*	
	2 Electricity	*94 11*	
	3 Refreshments for Governors	*15 30*	
		309 97	*309 97*
4	*Petty Cash*		
	*1 Miscellaneous**	*19 47*	*19 47*
			3090 66

** Details in attached lists*

KIANGARA SECONDARY SCHOOL ACCOUNTS, APRIL 1987

INCOME FROM SCHOOL FEES

Form IV	1. Abraham Audu	$40	
	2. Rosemary Eze	40	
	3. Josiah Lincoln	40	
	4. Yusufu Nekwie	40	
	5. Ojo Wanta	40	
	6. Kelen Okore	40	
	7. Smithson Dakwo	40	
		280	
Form III	1. Peninah Alawo	40	
	2. Raphael Okon	40	
	3. Naroltam George	40	
	4. Afor Moses	40	
	5. Jacob Kimane	40	
	6. James Audu	40	
		240	
Form II	1. Rachel Idakwo	$40	
			40
Form I	1. Jeremy Abdul	40	
	2. David Petra	40	
	3. Mohammed Yusuf	40	
	4. Angela Petra	40	
	5. Daffodil Labiya	40	
	6. Helen Onkwo	40	
	7. Birta Warta	40	
			280
	Total		$840

FEES FOR THIS TERM ALREADY PAID *(see account for March 1987)*

Form IV 17 pupils

Form III 11 pupils

Form II 21 pupils

Form I 16 pupils

TOTAL (65 pupils @ $40): $2600

FEES STILL UNPAID

Form IV	1. Henry Sargent	$40	
	2. Ora Kwo	40	
	3. Alison Njekwe	40	
	4. Philip Alikon	40	
		160	
Form III	1. Alfred Moi	40	
	2. Ezekial Romulo	40	
	3. Heshbon Alfa	40	
	4. Selita Moses	40	
		160	
Form II	1. John Nectan	$40	
	2. Peter Alakwo	40	
			80
Form I	1. Meshack Ayot	40	
	2. Obed Kisarga	40	
	3. Malawa Ife	40	
	4. Joshua Kirak	40	
	5. Elijah Luka	40	
			200
	Total		$600

KIANGARA SECONDARY SCHOOL ACCOUNTS, APRIL 1987

INCOME FROM RENT OF TEACHERS' HOUSES

1. Mrs Nanko	*$40*
2. Mr Solomon	*40*
3. Mr Kingsly	*40*
4. Miss Sule	*30*
	150

ACCOUNT FOR PETTY CASH

Income

1. Balance from March 1987	*$19.89*
2. Withdrawn from Bank	*$15.00*
	34.89

Expenditure

1. Stamps	*$4.95*
2. Bus to and from Gabo to collect books	*6.00*
3. Hospital charge for Josiah Lincoln	*50*
4. Miss Sule removal costs	*3.00*
5. New school rubber stamp	*5.02*
	19.47

BALANCE

1. Income	*34.89*
2. Expenditure	*–19.47*
	$15.42

TOTAL INCOME	*3491.12*
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	*3090.66*
BALANCE	*400.46*
Balance brought forward from March 1987	*2110.40*
TOTAL ASSETS	*2510.86*
Balance in Current Account	*485.14*
Balance in Deposit Account	*2010.30*
Petty Cash in hand	*15.42*
	2510.86

SIGNED
J.M. MORUNGI
Headmaster
5th May 1987

showing the final balance should correspond with the entries in the school's bank accounts plus the amount in petty cash. It shows both individual items and, on the right hand side, the totals for each section. Details for certain items are provided in separate lists.

One of the separate lists shows the income from fees, and also shows the names of pupils who have *not* paid. Many schools like to keep a separate fees register.

Several additional points about finance and accounting are worth making:

1. *Procedures:* Schools should have clearly identified procedures for receipt and expenditure of money. It is advisable for ordinary teachers not to handle school money at all. Most responsibility usually rests with the headteacher, who works in conjunction with the treasurer of the Board of Governors. Usually the headteacher is empowered to deal with day-to-day running expenses and often implementation of projects, while the Board of Governors takes responsibility for broader policy issues and overall design of projects.
2. *Petty Cash:* If the headteacher is allowed to keep petty cash, it should be restricted to a small amount and the balance should be included in the monthly account. Strict accounting for petty cash expenses is necessary.
3. *Banking:* Apart from the petty cash, all money should pass through a bank account as quickly as possible. Some schools are remote and it is tiresome to travel to the bank frequently, but it is very desirable to have an official record of all transactions.

   There are two types of bank account. The school can decide whether it wants to have both or only one.

   (a) A *savings account* is sometimes called a deposit or a passbook account. The benefits of this type of account are first that the school receives interest on its money, second that the book always indicates the current balance, and third that withdrawals can only be made at the bank and so it is hard to be overdrawn. It is particularly useful for block grants, donations, and special funds which are not used on a day-by-day basis.

   (b) A *current account* provides a cheque book. This means that it is not necessary for someone to go to the bank and

withdraw cash each time he/she wants to make a payment. Cheques can be written anywhere at all, by day or by night. However, money in a current account does not usually earn interest. Indeed the bank normally deducts money to pay its services, and in many countries the government charges a small tax on each cheque. It is also harder to know the balance in a current account, for sometimes people take a long time to cash cheques. If careful records are not kept, it is easy to get overdrawn and then to have to pay high interest rates and bank charges.

4. *Withdrawals:* The school should arrange for its bank withdrawals to require at least two signatures. Normally these are the headteacher plus another member of the Board of Governors (usually the Treasurer, if there is one). Many schools find it convenient for two Board members to be registered signatories in case one member is absent when the headteacher needs him. The signatures registered with the bank should be changed immediately the headteacher or any other signatory changes.
5. *Regular recording:* Transactions should be recorded daily, and the monthly accounts should be drawn up immediately each month has ended. If there is a delay, it is harder to remember accurate amounts, and what would otherwise be an easy routine task becomes a major exercise.
6. *Receipts:* These should always be given for money received, e.g. from school fees. The best way to do this is with a receipt book which has pages for carbon copies.

   Receipts should also be required for all money paid out. When small jobs are done by village carpenters or other people who are normally paid in cash, the workers should be required to sign for the money they have received.
7. *Presentation of Accounts:* Members of school Boards of Governors should insist on the accounts being presented at every regular meeting. They should check them particularly carefully when a headteacher is about to leave the school. This is to ensure that all records are in order, that the headteacher does not take any school money, and that the replacement headteacher is not subjected to any unfair allegations of irregularities.

Accounting for Donations in Kind

Gifts of labour and materials cannot be treated in the same way as money. However, schools should also keep good records of donations in kind so that they know who has given what, how much the items would have cost had the school needed to buy them, and how rapidly the gifts have been used. If the school has been given nails and paint, for example, the authorities should indicate how much has been used on what buildings and how much remains in the store room. And if the school has been promised or owed donations, the authorities should know what to expect and when.

If the school is entitled to any matching grants, the monetary value of non-financial donations should be assessed and included in calculations.

Communities should keep records of the amounts of labour and materials contributed as well as the amounts of cash.

Auditing Accounts

(a) Government Auditing

Where possible, governments should arrange regular and systematic auditing (checking) of the accounts of all schools. Botswana does this for all its secondary schools, and Swaziland tries to do it for all schools. In Zambia, by contrast, government auditors are only called in during a crisis, by which time the damage has usually been done.

It must be recognised that many primary schools are very remote, and that it may not be realistic to expect governments to send auditors to all of them. However, the job does not require a university-trained accountant. What it mainly needs is a person who can add up and who has common sense. In other words, District Education Officers could do the job just as effectively as an officer from the headquarters Ministry of Finance. District Education Officers could also help with in-service training where necessary.

Ideally, accounts should be audited every year. If this is not possible, five years should be a maximum time.

(b) Community Auditing

Communities may organise their own accounting systems, either in addition to or instead of government ones. Church school accounts, for example, may be audited by the Church Education Secretaries. Village development association school accounts can either be audited by a responsible person in the village, or the schools can make arrangement with neighbouring schools on a similar basis to that used when schools invigilate each others' examinations.

These do not need to be complex operations, and certainly they do not need á fully-qualified and expensive commercial auditor. The mere fact that headteachers and Board members know that an outsider is going to look at the accounts helps to prevent embezzlement and keep finances in order. Discussions with the outside person can also help school authorities to plan for the future.

Part III: Raising Resources

Chapter 7: Raising Money at the Community Level

This chapter discusses procedures for raising money at the community level, and the next one examines ways to generate contributions 'in kind' — of land, labour and materials. Obviously money can be used to buy land, labour, services and materials, and donations in kind can be as useful as donations of money. This means that Chapters 7 and 8 are complementary.

Money is needed to meet expenditures of two sorts: 'capital' and 'recurrent'.

> *'Capital' expenditure* refers to durable items such as land, buildings, library books and equipment, which have a life of several years.
>
> *'Recurrent' expenditure* refers to salaries and such consumable items as exercise books, chalk, repairs and food, which are continuously used up so that the need for spending constantly recurs.

Because capital items are visible and should be long-lasting, it is often easier to organise specific fund-raising projects to finance them. Also, capital projects can often be completed through a

series of short, hard pushes during which it may be easier to maintain enthusiasm.

But although it may be easier to raise money for capital projects, recurrent costs are often a bigger burden on schools. Salaries and other items are needed month after month after month, and do not attract the same enthusiasm as new buildings. This emphasises the need for careful planning of finance.

I. Fund-Raising for Capital Expenditure

The range of methods for fund-raising can be very wide. Some popular ones are:

1. Community Fund-Raising

(a) *Ceremonies* attended by local politicians and other important guests, at which projects are launched, foundation stones are laid, speeches are made, and money is donated. The events can be given wide publicity in the newspapers, on the local radio, and in posters displayed in the neighbourhood. Some communities make announcements of the names of important

Raising Funds in Eastern Nigeria

In Okoko-Item, the author's home village, the launching ceremony for the secondary school was held in 1978. The President-General of the village Progressive Union 'opened the table' by donating N12,000, and further promised to put up a dormitory complex at his own expense. Someone else offered to finance the principal's quarters at a cost of N50,000. Another rich individual volunteered to build the assembly hall. The women's wing of the Union offered to finance two staff quarters, provide the utensils for the boarding house, and feed the first batch of students free of charge for the first week. There were numerous other donations in cash and kind. Everybody in the community endeavours to donate some amount, no matter how small, and amounts are increased by the competitive spirit that the organisers encourage.

Source: Igwe (1985), p. 9.

donors and the sizes of their gifts, or name buildings after people who give large amounts. This usually increases the size of individual donations (though some participants consider it a form of 'blackmail').

(b) *Grants from local cooperatives*. In many countries, cash-crop cooperatives support local schools. One example is given in the box below.

Some cooperatives play a strong role in financing education. *In Tanzania the Bukoba Cooperative Union gave the following grants between 1969 and 1974:*

	Tanzania Shs
Upper Primary Education	*293,594*
Home Craft Schools	*110,000*
Secondary Education Fees	*433,592*
Omwani TAPA Secondary School	*13,694*
Rugambwa Secondary School	*25,000*
Farm Centres' School	*43,728*
University Education	*56,499*
Moshi Cooperative College	*9,416*
School Buildings	*155,275*
Education of BCU's own employees	*153,255*
TOTAL	*1,294,053*

Source: Galabawa (1985), p. 8.

(c) *Levies on parents* and other members of the community. When a school wants a particular item, such as a library or a laboratory, it can approach the Parent-Teacher Association or other community bodies. Sometimes the PTA committee or the village development association is willing to require all members to contribute.

(d) *Old Students' Associations* can also be approached to contribute to capital projects. Igwe (1985) indicates that all former students of his old school, for example, have recently been asked to contribute N100 for a school bus. Such contributions can only be voluntary, and the school is not able

to exert the same sort of pressure as it can on parents. However, well organised projects can achieve a great deal.

2. Grants from Churches and Governments

(a) *Donations from overseas churches* and charitable organisations can often be secured if the community has good contacts (perhaps through the parish priest and bishop). Each body should be approached in writing with details of the project, the reasons why it is being undertaken, and who will be responsible.

(b) *Grants from local government* organisations and ministries of community development may be secured in the same way. Although these bodies are not mainly concerned with education, they can often find money for specific projects.

(c) *Embassies* are often willing to donate books and small grants for construction.

3. The Business World

(a) *Donations from local businesses.* These can also be given publicity so that the businesses themselves gain some advertising and are keen to give again in the future.

(b) *Donations from local professional organisations*, such as the Lions Club and the Rotary Club. They should also be approached in writing, with details of the project and the reasons why it is being undertaken.

4. The School and its Children

(a) *School Fetes*, for which goods and produce are donated and then sold. They can be accompanied by displays of school work, to encourage the public to take an interest in the school. A committee undertakes the work of requesting produce, organising races, speeches and other competitions, and supervising the financial aspects.

(b) *Social events* — school discos, etc.

(c) *Sponsored competitions* in which parents and community members promise to pay specific amounts according to the achievements of their children or relatives. Sponsored walks are particularly popular, in which children collect for example 50 cents a kilometre. Some schools have sponsored spell-

ing competitions, which have the added benefit of boosting children's learning. Children are given a form to take to potential sponsors, and the sponsors then write how much they are prepared to pay per kilometre, per word, etc.. When the event has been held, the school staff certify what each child has achieved, the children return to their sponsors, collect the money, ask the sponsors to sign the paper, and give the money to their class teachers or other organisers.

(d) *Collecting empty bottles* for return to beverage companies is a popular way to raise small amounts of money in some urban areas. It has the added benefit of reducing the amount of litter lying around. Each class can be organised in competition, to see which can collect the most bottles.

News from Zambia

"Joseph Mutale, Member of the Central Committee for Copperbelt Province, has told the Regional Council of Education in Ndola that the voluntary district education committees formed last July have already collected more than K0.2m to build teachers' houses. The committees were formed when it was learned that largely due to a housing shortage, 18,800 children in the province would not get Grade 1 places."

Source: 'News from Zambia', Zimco House, London, May 1985.

II. Raising Funds for Recurrent Expenditure

1. School Fees

Most self-help schools charge fees. Since they are usually the largest source of funds for recurrent expenditure, there is often a temptation to make them as high as possible. However, there is a danger of high fees preventing some children from going to school. This is particularly unfortunate if the whole community is expected to contribute money or labour to the school but only the rich families can send their children. In all fee-paying systems, governments and communities might decide to operate some sort of scholarship system. Schools might also consider granting a

reduction in fees when families have more than one child in the system.

A Cautionary Question

The annual fees of most self-help secondary schools in Kenya exceed 2,000 Shillings per pupil. This is far beyond the reach of the ordinary peasant. But most of the schools are built with the help of money and labour contributed by poor peasants. Who pays, and who benefits?

Source: Lillis & Ayot (1985).

Some other points about fee collection are:

* it is desirable for the level of fees to be clearly indicated well in advance of the date when they are due — at least before the end of the previous term.
* the headteacher or other person responsible for collection of fees may have to be quite strict. Children who do not pay fees may have to be excluded from the school.
* Unless the school committee has a different policy (e.g. to allow families to wait until they gain seasonal income from sale of crops), fees are usually collected right at the beginning of term, when families are psychologically prepared for them. Children whose families live far away may bring the fees back to school with them, and there is less danger of the children losing the fees, spending them, or having them stolen.
* Pupils/parents should be given written receipts for their fees, and the headteacher should retain duplicate copies.
* All fees should be banked as soon as possible.
* Many schools decide that fees should not be refunded if pupils drop out, and that no reduction should be given if children arrive late in the term.
* Partial payment of fees creates uncertainty and administrative headaches, and many schools try to avoid it.

2. Other Sources of Money for Recurrent Expenditure

(a) Community Contributions

i) Communities might agree to introduce *compulsory education levies* on all adults in the area. The benefit of a levy specifically destined for education is that everybody knows what it is for, and may take extra interest in the schools as a result.

ii) Another source is an *education tax* on vehicles, beer or other 'luxuries'. Again, when these taxes are specifically labelled as being for education, people know where their money is going and may be more willing to pay. It might be assumed that owners of vehicles and drinkers of beer have more money than others and thus could pay the taxes more easily.

iii) For schools run by religious bodies, *regular collections* could be made during church/mosque/temple meetings or by levies on members.

iv) In some communities, e.g. in some parts of West Africa, *regular subscriptions* are required from all sons of the village even when they are no longer resident in the area. Special education committees can be set up to organise the operation.

v) Some communities run successful *cooperatives* for marketing coffee, tea and other produce, and for retailing consumer goods. Parts of the proceeds of these cooperatives can be set aside for education.

vi) Many schools provide houses for their teachers. To help pay the costs of maintenance it is common for teachers to pay at least small amounts of *rent*.

vii) Small amounts of money can also be generated by imposing *fines* on parents who fail to attend work days, or by allowing parents to send cash instead of doing manual work.

(b) School Economic Activities

i) Some schools run very profitable gardens, and generate money by selling crops and animals (chickens, rabbits, pigs, etc.).

ii) Similarly, some secondary schools undertake carpentry and metalwork contract jobs.

iii) Some schools run very successful shops which sell goods to people in the area, and others have businesses repairing tyre punctures and selling fuel.

iv) Schools in urban areas may be in a good position to rent out

their facilities to sports groups, adult education classes, provincial government meetings, etc.

However, people launching school economic activities should be aware of several dangers. First, the activities require a lot of careful attention to management, and thus can be time-consuming. Second, there is sometimes a problem of competition with other local producers and traders, which can cause resentment. And third, there is a danger of the activities interfering with the school's main learning activities because people want to buy fuel or other goods during class hours.

Education from Coffee

The Kanyigo Development Association (KADEA) is a successful self-help body in Tanzania which has established a flourishing secondary school. The people of Kanyigo subscribed 600,000 Tshs to start the school. They also agreed unanimously to pay a percentage of their coffee sales to contribute one million shillings each year as recurrent expenditure. KADEA is also running a cooperative shop and a bus to help fund the school.

Source: Galabawa (1985), p. 10.

Chapter 8: Generating Other Resources at the Community Level

This chapter is concerned with contributions in kind: land, labour and materials.

1. Land

Obviously all schools need land, and ideally they should have land near the centres of population which they serve. When allowance is made for buildings, sports fields and car parks, the area required may be quite large. Sports fields also require land which is flat, which may mean that it has a high value for other purposes and is hard to obtain.

Because land is so obviously needed by the school, and because parents themselves want to minimise the distance that their children have to walk to school, many schools are able to secure gifts of land quite easily. In some societies they can get common land allocated by the chief. Alternatively, church schools may be founded on land that already belongs to the church. Finally, of course, communities can buy land.

Two points about land matters deserve particular attention:

1. When securing land, the school authorities must plan ahead. They must remember that their school will grow, and they must estimate the area that the school will need when it has reached its maximum size. If they do not do this, there is a danger that their initial piece of land will be too small.
2. It is essential for land transactions to be legally recorded. This requires proper surveying, marking, and registration with the government. Many schools have suffered severely from land disputes arising from lack of records and from families changing their minds about donation of land. Even common

land donated by the chief can disputed if ownership is not properly recorded.

2. Labour

The most obvious inputs of labour are usually in construction of buildings and in maintenance of school compounds. The availability of people who are skilled in construction with local materials is one reason why it is often sensible for schools to be built with local rather than imported designs. Many community schools require parents and other community members to come to the school compounds on a specific day of the week. If they do not come and do not have good reasons, they may be fined. Those community members who have other commitments can agree to contribute money instead of labour.

Again, several guidelines may be laid down on the management of community labour:

1. The times when the school most needs labour, and when community members are most readily available, may vary. To make use of enthusiasm and develop momentum for projects, it is often a good idea to organise concentrated activity when constructing new buildings. Demands should not be made during the planting or harvesting seasons, when people are very busy elsewhere.
2. The practice of setting aside one afternoon a week for maintenance such as grass-cutting or repair of buildings is a good one. Such work must be properly organised:
   (a) there must be work to be done, so that people's time is not wasted,
   (b) the organisers must make sure that the necessary tools and materials are available,
   (c) each person should know exactly what he or she is supposed to be doing,
   (d) the organisers should make sure that they use the specific talents of capable individuals, and
   (e) good records must be kept of who comes, and who works properly. When community members find that nobody notices whether they come or not, and that nobody appreciates their work, they soon lose interest. Records are also valuable if disputes break out because some groups feel

that they are supporting the school more heavily than others.

3. The work days and projects can be made the responsibility of either a specific member or a sub-committee of the Board of Governors. It is better for the Board to undertake responsibility than for the teachers to do so, because Board members are more likely to be members of the community and they are likely to have authority.

Many community members are also willing to undertake unpaid services on behalf of the school as part of their normal work. For example, a contractor whose lorry is travelling on other business may be willing to transport people or materials without charging for it. Likewise, villagers who are going to town for other reasons may be willing to purchase school supplies, and the local health officer may be willing to come to the school compound to carry out work that would otherwise be done in his clinic. The school committee could compile an 'inventory' of resources of this type that may be available.

Many schools also organise lunch programmes and employ mothers on a rota basis. The food may be contributed by the mothers themselves. Or it may be grown in the school garden or purchased, in which case the community contribution is just in cooking and serving. Such food programmes are likely to have several benefits. For example, good nutrition contributes to better learning, and if the food programmes are well supervised, they may also improve mothers' nutrition practices.

Where schools have wide catchment areas but are unable to provide boarding facilities, many communities organise accommodation. For instance, the host villagers may agree to look after children from distant areas in return for help with domestic work and farming. Alternatively, the host village may lend land and the distant villages may build a hostel for their children to stay in. When this arrangement is followed, it is important for the community to ensure that an adult supervises the hostel and that the children are not left entirely to fend for themselves.

Finally, it is often possible to engage community members as ancillary or part-time teachers. Some communities, for example, have many retired teachers who are still active and keen to remain

involved. Others have skilled craftsmen who enjoy working with young people and transmitting their skills. Often the local health officer can teach about hygiene and first aid, and in most communities the local priests are willing to teach religious knowledge. In some cases the school can provide a small honorarium in recognition of these services, but in others the individuals work without payment. Three potential problems should however be noted:

(a) that the individuals may be very good at their craft and have excellent knowledge of their profession, but they may not be very good at teaching it;
(b) that discipline problems can arise because pupils think that such personnel are not 'real' teachers and do not have authority to punish them; and
(c) that because the ancillary teachers do not receive a proper salary they may feel less concerned about punctuality, homework assignments, etc..

Because of these factors, schools should not rely too heavily on voluntary labour of this sort unless it is properly supervised.

3. Materials

As well as building materials, schools require books, furniture, cooking utensils, laboratory equipment, and so on. Locally produced materials can often be secured during fund-raising ceremonies and work days. It may be possible to secure donations of books and other equipment by writing to commercial companies and to organisations such as the Rotary Club and Lions Club.

Should Urban Communities Contribute too?

Some people feel that it is unfair that rural communities should be expected to contribute labour and materials to their schools if urban communities are not. To make the system more fair, in 1983 the Lilongwe Urban District Council in Malawi imposed a levy of K5 per family in lieu of self-help contributions. Many governments also charge high rates on property in urban areas.

Contribution of labour is often just as important as contribution of cash or materials.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Chapter 9:
Government Grants

In many systems, voluntary agency schools are entitled to apply for various government grants. These may be of several types:

1. Recurrent Grants

(a) Salaries for Teachers: In some systems the government pays the salaries of all approved teachers in voluntary agency schools. In Lesotho and Papua New Guinea, for example, this arrangement was introduced at the time of the unification of the church and state education systems.

If governments feel they can afford it, the arrangement has several advantages:

1. the grants can be linked to standard pay scales so that teachers with the same qualifications and experience are given the same salaries even though they work for different agencies,
2. it can incorporate arrangements for pensions,
3. it relieves the voluntary agencies of a very heavy burden,
4. it can be used as an incentive to persuade the voluntary agencies to agree to other controls, e.g. in curriculum, inspection, and the qualifications of teachers.

However the arrangement is very costly, and many governments may feel that they cannot afford it. An alternative is to go half way — to pay only the salaries of headteachers, or of a set quota of staff per school. This system is used in some Harambee schools in Kenya, for example.

In many systems, the salaries of government-paid teachers go directly into their bank accounts. Alternatively, the Ministry of Education might send a monthly cheque to each school, calculated to match the salary entitlements of specific individuals. These are

not general grants which the school can subdivide as it sees fit. Usually, the monthly cheques are accompanied by forms which the teachers must sign to indicate that they have been paid. This prevents the money being put to other uses, and makes sure that the salaries of teachers who have left the schools are not taken by unauthorised individuals.

(b) Salaries for Administrators: Some governments also provide grants to help pay the salaries of Church Education Secretaries. They do this in recognition that the Secretaries' work is essential for the smooth running of the system. In Papua New Guinea, each church is entitled to a grant equivalent to the salary of a base-level primary school teacher for every 100 teachers covered by its education secretaries. If an education secretary has only 99 teachers, the church is not supposed to get the grant. If he has 199 teachers, the church gets a grant equivalent to only one teacher's salary. If he has 200 teachers, the grant is equivalent to two salaries. When the church does not receive a grant, or when it wishes to give the secretary a higher salary, the extra money must come from its own funds.

(c) Other Recurrent Grants: Many governments also provide recurrent grants to cover chalk, food, exercise books, maintenance and so on. Usually, this is calculated as a fixed amount of money multiplied by the number of pupils. For example, the Botswana government gives grants of P80 per secondary school pupil, and the Zimbabwe government gives grants ranging from Z$8 for Grade 1 pupils to Z$21 for Grade 7 pupils. Governments using this system would be wise to make spot checks on the accuracy of reported enrolments.

2. Grants for Capital Expenditure

Although in many systems buildings and other capital works are the responsibility of communities, governments sometimes provide fixed, matching or full grants. The box on the next page indicates the fixed grants provided for voluntary agency schools by the Zimbabwe government. The grants are not expected to cover the full costs of the buildings, so the agencies must find the balance. Provision of these grants allows the government to require minimum standards of construction.

Building Grants in Zimbabwe

Administration Block	*Z$9,000*
Library	*5,350*
Classroom	*2,500*
Geography Room	*5,550*
Laboratory & Store	*10,150*
Woodwork Room & Store	*5,650*
Metalwork Room & Store	*6,400*
Housecraft Room & Store	*5,200*
Agricultural Building	*3,400*
Toilet Block & Tool Store	*2,950*
Dormitory & Toilet Block for 36 pupils	*990*
Kitchen, Dining Rm & Store for 144 pupils	*2,090*

Source: Zimbabwe Ministry of Education & Culture

A matching grant means that the agency puts forward a sum, and the government 'matches' it, dollar for dollar. This is a good way to encourage communities to collect money, for they feel both that the government cares about their efforts and that their fund raising exercises will be particularly productive. However, it is important for governments to know in advance how much they may become committed to — otherwise they may find that their commitment is too open-ended and that they are issuing a 'blank cheque'.

Matching grants do not necessarily operate in equal proportions. In one Lesotho project, for example, local churches have been required to provide only 25% of the cost of buildings. The project was substantially funded by foreign aid, but the government wanted to secure some contributions from the churches so that more money would be generated and so that the voluntary agencies would be more appreciative of the outside input. Accordingly, classrooms were built with 75% government money and 25% voluntary agency money. One big problem which has arisen, however, is that little allowance was made for maintenance. This was supposed to be a voluntary agency responsibility, but in practice was widely neglected.

Sometimes, both parties get frustrated: the government officer has cash, and the communities need it. But organisational factors act like a great gulf which prevents the system from working properly.

Chapter 10:
Opportunities for Outside Help

Many projects have gained help from various outside organisations. Some organisations may help with funds, and others, the volunteer bodies, with teachers. This chapter is mainly written for communities and non-government organisations. It provides suggestions on bodies to which they might apply, and some addresses which can be followed up.

1. Religious Organisations:
Community leaders wishing to set up a school could find it useful to approach the churches in their areas. The churches might be able to help with funds and materials, both from the local neighbourhood and from overseas. They might also help with management.

2. Business Organisations:
In many countries, schools have received sponsorship from the Rotary Club, the Lions' Club, and the Round Table. Again, they might be able to obtain funds from overseas to supplement those available locally. The local addresses should be obtained from the telephone book for the capital city and other major towns.

3. Local Businesses and Industries:
Community leaders often find it worthwhile to approach commercial enterprises and industries. The companies like to feel that they are contributing to local development, and are sometimes quite generous. Several communities in Kenya, for example, have secured grants from the Brooke Bond Tea company. In Zambia, some copper mining companies sponsor students, who may or may not be named. Elsewhere, companies sponsor sports and academic competitions, and present prizes.

Support from Brooke Bond Tea

Provision of education for the children of its employees has long been a priority of Kenya's Brooke Bond Tea company. In 1984, it had 17 schools. The company provides the land and constructs the buildings, and hands the schools to the government when they are completed. In 1985, Brooke Bond built eight teachers' houses in the Kericho area, and new schools at Chelimo and Kentmere estates. It also provided funds to assist the relocation of the government-aided school in Kibwezi, and for girls' and boys' hostels.

Source: Lillis & Ayot (1985), p. 11.

4. Embassies:

Schools can often obtain small grants of cash, books, sports equipment, etc. from foreign embassies. Each one should be approached separately. The addresses can be found either in the telephone book or in government handbooks/directories. Remember that some diplomatic representatives may be accredited to your country even if they are resident in a neighbouring one. They can be approached too.

5. Overseas Charities:

Several overseas bodies are willing to assist with community development projects and have no religious affiliation. They may help with money, equipment or materials.

Two very comprehensive directories of agencies in Europe and North America have been produced, and you may be able to find them in university or other large libraries, through local volunteer organisations, or through bodies like the British Council or the United States Information Service.

The directory of European donors has been produced by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). It is called *Directory of Non-Government Organisations active in Development Co-operation in Member Countries*, and was published in 1981. If you cannot find the directory in your own country, you could write to:

OECD Information Service,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F 75775 Paris,
Cedex 16,
FRANCE.

The list of American agencies has been compiled by the Technical Assistance Information Clearing House (TAICH). It has a special section on education, and a geographical section through which users can check whether agencies specifically operate in their countries. It is called *U.S. Nonprofit Organizations in Development Assistance Abroad*. Again, if you cannot find the directory in your own country, you could write to:

TAICH,
200 Park Avenue South,
New York,
NY 10003,
USA.

Both the OECD and the TAICH would probably send you the directories without changing you any money.

Thirdly, community leaders could search for international foundations which operate from their own or neighbouring countries. For example, the international headquarters of the Foundation for Education with Production is in Botswana (P.O. Box 20906, Gaborone), and it has branches in Zimbabwe and Zambia.

To maximise their chances of getting money in all these cases, community leaders should first check on the type of assistance that the organisations usually provide (e.g. water pumps, textbooks, nutrition projects, etc.). They should then draw up individual proposals to match the organisations' interests. Having obtained the assistance, the community leaders should present periodic reports on how money has been spent and how the project is progressing. If community leaders do this, the donor will see that they are well organised and will be more likely to give further help in the future.

6. Foreign Volunteer Organisations

These bodies provide teachers. Schools must provide housing, but the volunteers work for the same salaries as local staff. Volunteer teachers usually work with strong dedication, and are often enthusiastic about remote locations. The organisations' local officers normally visit schools to see if they are viable before they commit themselves to projects.

The United Nations has a volunteer organisation which also publishes information on other volunteer bodies. Its comprehensive international directory on volunteer and development agencies can be obtained by writing to:

The Executive Secretary,
United Nations Volunteers (UNV),
Palais des Nations,
Ch-1211 Geneva 10,
SWITZERLAND.

The addresses of some other prominent organisations are:

Australia:
Australian Volunteers Abroad (AVA)
69 Grey Street,
East Melbourne,
Victoria 3002.

Canada:
CUSO,
135 Rideau Street,
Ottawa,
Ontario K1N 9K7.

France:
Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service,
1, rue Miollis,
75015 Paris.

Japan:
Fuji Volunteer Bureau,
Oki Building,
5–12–5 Shinyuku,
Tokyo.

Netherlands: Stichting Nederlandse Vrywilligers,
P.O. Box 20061,
2500 EB The Hague.

New Zealand: Volunteer Service Abroad (VSA),
31 Pipitea Street,
P.O. Box 12–246,
Wellington.

United Kingdom: British Volunteer Programme (BVP),
22 Coleman Fields,
London N1.
(This body coordinates the work of the main UK volunteer organisations.)

United States: Peace Corps Volunteers (PCV),
806 Connecticut Ave, N.W.,
Washington DC 20525.

International Voluntary Service (IVS),
1424, 16th Street, N.W.,
Washington D.C. 20036.

In some countries, governments insist that all foreign aid should be channelled through them. They do this in order to control and coordinate operations. Usually the process severely slows projects, however, and causes considerable frustration for both donors and recipients. Governments would be wise to consider whether their efforts to control and coordinate are worth the cost, and whether they are not in fact discouraging donors and communities from embarking on projects.

Meanwhile, even when governments insist that overseas funding should be channelled through them, communities would be wise to make the first steps themselves. They can contact the outside agencies and set up the project, and when it is ready they can ask the government for approval. If the project is already well planned, governments are likely to grant approval quite readily.

Part IV:
Controls on Quality

Chapter 11:
Government Controls

The experience of several countries suggests that governments would be unwise to allow communities to establish schools wherever and whenever they wish. The Kenyan experience of Harambee, for instance, indicates that unless self-help schemes are carefully regulated they can be a two-edged sword. Uncontrolled opening of schools can lead to institutions that are unstable and qualitatively poor, and can increase inequalities between social groups and between regions.

1. Controls over the Establishment of Schools

Most governments already insist that all schools, including private ones, must be registered before they can operate. When agencies first apply for registration, the governments are in a good position to insist on various qualitative safeguards. The following checklist of questions might be asked at the time of registration:

(a) Justification

- Why does the community want a school? Is its aspiration justified, or is it likely to lead to disillusion? Is there evidence of a strong and continuing need for the school?
- Is the proposed school within the catchment area of an existing school? What effect will the new school have on the enrolment of its neighbours?

* If the school is a religious one, will its opening make it uneconomic to establish a government school in the village and thus force children to attend it even if they are not members of that religion? Are there adequate safeguards to protect the rights of pupils who are not members of the religion?
* Is the community united in its desire for a school, or are there signs of serious social splits?

(b) Management

* Does the sponsoring agency have evidence of adequate finance for both the capital works and the recurrent expenditure? Do the sponsors have realistic and detailed proposals on ways to secure future finance?
* Is there evidence of long term commitment to the school? Is the community aware of the extent to which a school can be a heavy burden?
* Does the school have a proper Board of Governors which looks likely to be effective?

(c) Quality of Inputs

* Does the school have enough land? If it intends to commence in temporary premises, are these satisfactory? When will the school move to a permanent site, and where will it be?
* Who will be the teachers in the new school? Are they qualified? Are they sufficiently committed to the school to be prepared to stay a reasonable length of time?
* What curriculum does the school intend to follow?

(d) Implications for Government

* Is it the long term objective of the community for their school to be taken over by the government? What will happen if they are unsuccessful in this?
* What impact will the school have on regional imbalances?
* Will the government have to give grants to the school which are needed more urgently in other projects?
* Do economic projections indicate a need for more graduates of the type that the school will produce? Or will the school merely contribute to unemployment and social friction?

Many situations are politically sensitive, but most Ministry of Education planning officers would like to have satisfactory answers to each of these questions before giving approval for a school to open. Churches and other sponsoring agencies should ask themselves the same questions.

2. Controls over Existing Schools

Governments can also exercise various controls when schools are already operating. They may be direct or indirect:

(a) Direct Controls

i) regulations on the size of classrooms, the pupil:teacher ratio, the number of toilets, etc.
ii) inspection of teachers' and pupils' work

(b) Indirect Influence

i) grants with 'strings', e.g. for buildings which meet standard specifications
ii) gifts of particular required facilities (e.g. laboratories)
iii) control of examinations, which will therefore influence the curriculum
iv) promise of takeover if the facilities and the examination results are good
v) in-service and pre-service teacher training
vi) training sessions for Boards of Governors.

3. The Need for Information

At present, many Ministries of Education know rather little about self-help activities in their countries. Much more careful analysis could be undertaken, so that the authorities can gain a clearer picture of developments and appropriate future strategies. At the same time, many governments provide only a poor service to communities who would like information and guidance for their schools. It is often hard for villagers to know what grants are available, what textbooks could be used, what legal rights they have over teachers who behave in unprofessional ways, and so on.

In many countries, there is a need for a separate unit in the Ministry to take charge of these matters. Specifically, the units could be responsible for:

(a) Collection of Data for the Government

* the number of self-help schools already existing,
* the geographical distribution of the schools,
* the agencies responsible for the schools,
* the number of schools that communities would like to open,
* the enrolments in the schools, by grade and sex,
* the number of teachers, by age, sex and qualification,
* the nature of the schools' buildings and facilities,
* the curricula of the schools,
* the quality of educational achievement in the schools,
* the level of fees,
* the nature and strength of the schools' finances,
* the nature and quality of the schools' managing committees,
* the destinations of the schools' graduates,
* the ways in which self-help operations could be improved,
* and so on.

(b) Dissemination of Information to Communities

* the regulations with which schools should comply,
* the grants that are available,
* the other agencies from which communities might secure funds,
* the conditions under which schools can get taken over by government,
* the types of buildings that are durable and easy to maintain,
* the places in which schools can buy building-block machines, etc.,
* the bests way to keep accounts and to get them audited,
* the rights of teachers in self-help schools,
* the rights of schools who want to dismiss teachers for bad behaviour,
* the most suitable textbooks to purchase,
* the criteria on which school inspectors will judge them,
* the best ways to deal with indiscipline of students,
* and so on.

Dissemination could be through posters, radio discussion, leaflets to be taken round schools by inspectors and others, and by word of mouth.

In small countries, or ones without large Harambee-type systems, it would still be useful to have an officer part responsible for helping PTAs in both government and non-government schools. Often, this could be made part of the duties of the District Education Officer.

4. A Cautionary Note

Although this chapter focusses on controls, it is also important to stress that government intervention should be constructive. Bureaucracies can easily become complicated and obstructive. Controls should not be so tight that they inhibit community spirit. If they are too tight, both communities and governments will be frustrated.

DUTIES
• ARRANGE GOVERNMENT AND EXTERNAL GRANTS
• MONITOR SELF HELP PROGRAMMES
• ADVISE ON WAYS TO SECURE SUPPLIES
• HELP AUDIT ACCOUNTS
• ETC. ETC.
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER

The District Education Officer should be a key person for assisting communities with self-help projects and checking on quality.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Chapter 12:
Agency and Community Controls

The previous chapter concentrated on government controls. But controls by churches or other agencies, and by village-level communities, may be just as important.

Most large agencies employ Church Education Secretaries or similar officers. Their role is to supervise the development of their school systems, and to liaise with governments and other bodies. It is helpful if the Secretaries have teaching experience themselves. They need to be energetic people, prepared to travel and to be sympathetic to the viewpoints of others.

It was pointed out in Chapter 11 that the government can exercise two sorts of control: over the initial establishment of schools and over existing schools. The same applies to non-government personnel.

1. Controls over the Establishment of Schools

Agencies and communities should ask themselves exactly the same questions as governments, listed in the last chapter (pages 70–71). They must be quite clear why they want a new school, whether it is justified, and how it will be financed.

Sometimes neighbouring communities or churches want separate schools, even when they would threaten existing ones. The communities running the existing schools may not be able to prevent new schools being started, but they can do two things:

* Ask themselves why the neighbouring communities are dissatisfied, whether it is their fault, and whether they can do anything about it. Sometimes a harmonious settlement can be found to keep all communities supporting an existing school.
* Discuss the matter with government officers who are required to give approval to new schools.

Divisive Rivalries in Kenya

In the late 1960s, the people of Kamsaki in Nyanza Province felt that their children were walking too far to school each day, and decided to build a school of their own. The Roman Catholics felt that it could also be used to teach catechism and to hold church meetings on Sundays. But the Salvation Army members would not agree. The result was that two schools were built, neither with enough children to fill it or to warrant the government paying the teachers and supplying the equipment. Sometimes, self-help can lead to divisions and waste.

Source: Bray, Dondo & Moemeka (1976), pp. 232-3.

2. Controls over Existing Schools

(a) Appointment of the Board of Governors

A lot of agency and community control is exercised through their schools' Boards of Governors. The first two objectives, therefore, are to make sure that each Board has a good constitution, and then to appoint members who will work hard and who know what they are doing. Once members are appointed, they can only be terminated before the end of their period of office if they are failing to observe the constitution.

(b) Appointment of Teachers

In some systems teachers are appointed by individual Boards of Governors. In other systems the government posts teachers to the schools, but usually the schools can have some say in the matter.

When village communities make decisions on teachers, they should be aware that place of birth is not everything. Although their strong community links may give local people advantages, other candidates may also be good. Communities should think about the professional skills of teachers as well as where they come from. Their skills can partly be determined by their qualifications, but the best indicator is the way they are regarded by their existing and previous schools. If community representatives are unable actually to visit those schools, they can at least ask for references and testimonials. They can also interview the applicants. If there

are local applicants, they should also be interviewed. Even when the interviewers feel that they know the local candidates, it is much easier to compare people who have been interviewed at the same time.

Similar comments apply in Church schools to the religion of teachers. For example, the Methodist church may choose only to employ Methodists in its schools. However, there may be times when good candidates are not available, and when a flexible policy is required.

(c) Resources for the School

The financial and other resources available to a school clearly have a major impact on the quality of its facilities and its output. This means that fund-raising ventures discussed in Chapters 7 and 8 are very important. Agencies can provide incentives and exercise additional control through a system of grants.

It is also essential for money to be *managed* well — for it to be guarded carefully and spent wisely. Church Education Secretaries can play a supervisory and advisory role here too.

(d) Selection of Pupils

Obviously, community schools are set up to serve their own communities. But school authorities should guard their standards of admission, particularly at secondary level. For this they need clear, written criteria. The quality of a school's achievement depends partly on the quality of the pupils selected in the first place.

The main official criteria for admission to secondary schools are usually:

(a) the normal residence of the applicant and her/his family — whether they live in the area served by the school,
(b) the applicants' scores in the primary leaving examination, and
(c) in the case of church schools, the religion of the applicants.

Communities may decide that they wish to give extra consideration to children of Board members and teachers, and to children of parents who have made large donations to the school. These can be

good policies, because they reward people who have supported the school. But communities should be aware that the policies may lead to admission of academically weak children, which will affect the quality of their school.

An Assisting Agency's Experience

The Aga Khan Foundation provides considerable help to Ismaili communities in Pakistan. To secure greater effort from the communities and at the same time maximise its own control, it makes sure that:

1. *villagers are informed that the programme is competitive, that funds are limited, and that their chances of assistance are based on the accuracy and realism of their applications,*
2. *formal evaluation criteria for applications are used, and*
3. *final evaluations and decisions are made by a committee based in Karachi.*

Source: Heneveld & Karim (1984), p. 3.

Part V: Concluding Observations

Although community management and financing of education are not new, few authorities in recent years have given them much attention. The combination of economic depression and increased demand for education has made the topic even more important than it has been in the past.

This resource book has highlighted some of the issues and strategies which deserve attention from governments, from voluntary agencies, and from community leaders. Because it covers a wide range of countries and contexts, some of its specific points apply more strongly to some settings than to others. Yet the general principles are universally applicable.

Page 10 has already suggested some ways in which the book can be used, and the reader is referred back to it. In conclusion, it is stressed that promotion of community management and financing is less a science than an art. Above all, it depends on the personalities of the participants, and on their relationships with each other.

The final observations, are as follows:

Governments, Churches and other Voluntary Bodies are advised to:

* Publicise the virtues of increased self-help,
* Provide supporting services for self-help projects,
* Monitor the range and activities of projects,
* Observe the gaps and weaknesses, and analyse the reasons for them,
* Exercise supervision and control where necessary, especially to maintain quality and protect individuals against exploitation, but
* Avoid stifling local initiatives,

* Be flexible,
* Be prepared to delegate decisions to officers who have an intimate understanding of local projects, and
* Liaise frequently and sensitively with other bodies and with self-help groups.

Community Leaders are advised to:

* Analyse their needs and resources very carefully — ask themselves whether they really do want a school, or whether they really do want expansion, and whether it can be properly supported.
* Appoint an active School Committee, which has a particularly committed Chairman,
* Liaise carefully with governments,
* Liaise carefully with churches, other non-government organisations, and donors,
* Liaise carefully with neighbouring schools,
* Keep careful accounts, and have them audited,
* Pay constant attention to quality as well as quantity.

Annotated Bibliography

Abreu, Elsa (1982): *The Role of Self-Help in the Development of Education in Kenya 1900–1973*, Kenya Literature Bureau, Nairobi.

Kenya is well known for its Harambee schools, which are a major focus of this book. Other chapters examine the activities of Muslim, Hindu and Goan communities. The author conducted extensive research, and the result is an informative historical survey.

Ahmad, Zulfikcar and Munawar, Mirza (1985): *The Financing of Privately-Managed Schools in the Punjab*, IIEP Research Report No. 1, Paris.

The paper concentrates on four types of secondary schools in the Punjab, Pakistan: denominational schools (Christian and Muslim), non-denominational profit-making schools, non-profit-making schools, and 'non-recognized' schools. It looks at the origins of initiatives for establishment, unit costs, the sources of finance, and the extent of state support. In 1971, about half of the resources came from fees, one fifth from government grants, and one fifth from gifts.

Anderson, John (1973): *Organization and Financing of Self-Help Education in Kenya*, IIEP, Paris.

This is a very useful study of the ways funds have been raised for primary and secondary schools, and of the uses to which the money has been put. Discussion is illuminated by several case studies, which also highlight problems. Few books examine the topic as carefully as does this one.

Bray, Mark with Lillis, Kevin (eds.) (1987): *Community Support for Education in Less Developed Countries: Issues and Policy Implications*, Pergamon, Oxford.

Some of the papers in this book were presented at the 1985 Botswana workshop, and are here reproduced in revised form. In

addition, the book contains case-studies on Nepal, Zambia, Burma and Papua New Guinea. It also has lengthy and comprehensive analyses of the issues and policy implications.

Bray, M., Dondo, J.M.C. and Moemeka, A.A. (1976): 'Education and the Community: Two Case Studies from Nigeria and Kenya', in King, K. (ed.), *Education and the Community in Africa*, Centre of African Studies, University of Edinburgh.

The paper contrasts a community in Bendel State of Nigeria, which is cohesive and able to raise substantial funds for its school, with a community in Western Kenya which is much more divided and where self-help has had at least some negative effects.

Bray, Mark and Preston, Rosemary (1986): *Community School Boards of Management and Parents and Citizens' Associations: Their Role, Impact and Potential*, Educational Research Unit, University of Papua New Guinea.

The survey for this report covered nearly a quarter of the community (primary) schools in Papua New Guinea. It collected detailed information on the composition of school Boards of Management and P&C Associations, on the ways they raise money, and on the items on which they spend income. The report also discusses the dynamics of Board operation.

Commonwealth Secretariat (1985a): *Ninth Commonwealth Conference of Ministers of Education: Report*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Among other topics, the Report summarises the delegates' discussion on community financing and their recommendations. The Botswana workshop and this resource book were among the outcomes of the Ministers' conference.

Commonwealth Secretariat (1985b): *Community Financing of Schools: Report of the Commonwealth Regional Workshop with special reference to Southern Africa,* Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

This is the short report of the Botswana workshop. A longer and more detailed study is contained in Bray with Lillis (1987).

Eicher, J.C. (1984): *Educational Costing and Financing in Devel-*

oping Countries: A Focus on Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank Staff Working Paper No. 655, Washington. See also Eicher, J.C. (1982): 'What Resources for Education?', *Prospects*, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 57–68.

The statistics in the 1984 document concentrate on Francophone West Africa. Only the last two chapters examine issues of 'cost recovery', and discussion is very general. One comment relevant to community financing (p. 157) is that although official data frequently claim to include local contributions, usually they do not do so. Eicher also suggests (p. 165 ff) that it might be useful to review policies of fee-free schooling.

Galabawa, J.C.J. (1985): 'Community Financing of Schools in Tanzania', paper presented at the Commonwealth Secretariat workshop on Community Financing of Schools, Gaborone, Botswana.

Among other topics, the paper focusses on TAPA, cash-crop cooperative, development association, and religious community schools. It discusses both the nature of fund-raising and government attitudes.

Hughes, Meredydd (1981): *Leadership in the Management of Education: A Handbook for Educational Supervisors*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

A section in this book examines school-community relationships. The book also examines styles of leadership.

Heneveld, Ward and Karim, Abdul (1984): 'Outline of a Pilot Programme for Self-Help School Construction in the Northern Areas of Pakistan', Aga Khan Foundation, Geneva.

The Aga Khan Foundation has a project to assist self-help Ismaili communities. This report stresses the need for simple application forms and for construction supervision in the case of complex buildings. It indicates the dangers of bureaucracy and inflexible donor intentions stifling rather than encouraging self-help, and comments on the difficulties of expanding a pilot project to cover a whole region.

Igwe, Sam (1985): 'Community Financing of Schools in Eastern Nigeria', paper presented at the Commonwealth Secretariat

workshop on Community Financing of Schools, Gaborone, Botswana.

This is an illuminating paper on past and present patterns of school financing, with full examples from Igwe's own experience in Imo State. It looks at both church and non-church fund-raising, and comments on the roles of Councils of Elders, Village and Clan Improvement Unions, and Age Groups. It quotes the official regulations, and discusses critical issues for policy-makers.

Jayasuriya, J.E. (1984): *The Organization and Management of Community Support for Education: A Synthesis Study*, Occasional Papers in Educational Planning, Management and Facilities, No. 8, Unesco, Bangkok.

The report synthesises the findings of separate documents on India, Indonesia, Nepal, Thailand and Sri Lanka. The sources of financial support identified include individuals, local governments, voluntary groups, businesses, religious groups, and political parties. One recommended strategy for increasing support is the zoning of schools so that communities can identify with specific institutions. Data on Burma and Tamil Nadu (India) are more detailed than for the other countries.

Kelly, M.J. (1985): 'Report of the Seminar on Education Finance', School of Education, University of Zambia, Lusaka.

Kelly reports on a conference convened by the World Bank in Nairobi, and discusses its deliberations in the light of the Zambian situation. He focusses on ways to reduce costs and to increase resources. On the latter he comments on potential for increasing fees, charging taxes on land or buildings, requiring large companies to pay for the education of their employees, and increasing school production activities in agriculture and furniture construction. Kelly suggests that the Zambian government should (a) obtain more information on how much parents actually contribute at present, (b) formulate specific guidelines for development of self-help schools, and (c) consider creating a small unit to support and monitor self-help activities.

Lillis, Kevin M. and Ayot, Henry (1985): 'Community Financing of Education: Issues from Kenya', paper presented at the

Commonwealth Secretariat workshop on Community Financing of Schools, Gaborone, Botswana.

The paper comments on historical growth and present patterns of educational provision in Kenya, and covers the full range of different types of school. It pays particular attention to the Harambee schools and to commercial funding of education. Low educational quality and regional imbalances are among the issues highlighted.

Mbithi, Philip M. and Rasmusson, Rasmus (1977): *Self Reliance in Kenya: The Case of Harambee*, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala.

This book examines Harambee health centres, roads, cattle dips, etc. as well as schools, but the non-education sections should not be considered irrelevant. It contains considerable research information, and is well written. Separate chapters examine leadership patterns, financial and non-financial contributions, viability of projects, and policy implications.

Putsoa, Bongile (1985): 'Community Financing of Schools in Swaziland', paper presented at the Commonwealth Secretariat workshop on Community Financing of Schools, Gaborone, Botswana.

Putsoa describes the different types of schools in Swaziland, and analyses aspects of capital and recurrent financing. Her appendices provide details on a number of self-help projects.

Sinclair, Margaret with Lillis, Kevin (1980): *School and Community in the Third World*, Croom Helm, London.

This book does not examine issues of resourcing or management in great detail, but it discusses such related topics as appropriate curricula, dissemination of innovation, and the motivations of pupils, teachers and parents.

Tan, Jee-Peng (1985): 'The Private Direct Cost of Secondary Schooling in Tanzania', *International Journal of Educational Development*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 1–10.

Tan reports that in 1981, average expenditure incurred by families to allow a child to attend school was equivalent to

US$139 for government school pupils and $439 (including $242 for fees) for private school pupils. Average per capita incomes were just $280, and the amounts seem high. However, Tan suggests that the large proportion of private students indicates that many families are both able and willing to pay higher fees. She recommends that fees should be charged in government schools, with a scholarship scheme to help poor families.

Vickery, D.J. (1985): 'Communities and School Buildings: Developments and Issues', paper presented at the Commonwealth Secretariat workshop on Community Financing of Schools, Gaborone, Botswana.

The first part of the paper concentrates on ways to reduce the cost of buildings, and the second part discusses forms of community input. The paper is provocative in style, draws on considerable experience, and has examples from all parts of the developing world.

Wellings, Paul Anthony (1983): 'Unaided Education in Kenya: Blessing or Blight?', *Research in Education*, Vol. 29, pp. 11–28.

The author concentrates on Harambee secondary schools in Kenya, and examines their quality and impact on the labour market. He discusses the facilities of the schools, the qualifications of their teachers, and their examination results. He concludes that quality is often 'abysmally low', and that on balance the schools are more a blight than a blessing.

Williamson, P.D. (1983): 'Evaluation of the Primary School Self-Help Construction Programme Undertaken in Malawi under the Third IDA Education Project', Ministry of Education and Culture, Lilongwe.

Between 1979 and 1983 the Malawi government implemented a school building programme using standard designs and self-help construction. Williamson is very critical of the project, which he says was poorly conceived, poorly managed, and too large. One of his conclusions is that better value for money would have been obtained from contractors than self-help. He has many detailed criticisms and technical recommendations.

Extra Copies of this Book

If you, or anyone you know, would like a copy of this book, the Commonwealth Secretariat can provide limited numbers free of charge to people and organisations in developing countries. Write to:

The Director,
Education Programme,
The Commonwealth Secretariat,
Marlborough House,
Pall Mall,
LONDON SW1Y 5HX,
United Kingdom.

The combination of economic depression and population growth has placed increasing strain on education systems in less developed countries. This has forced governments to search for new ways to finance education systems, and many have developed keen interest in mechanisms of community financing.

This resource book highlights strategies for community management and financing. It is written in a style which is easy to follow, and it contains many examples and illustrations. As well as commenting on successful practices, it discusses problems to be avoided.

The book is mainly intended for four groups of people: national government policy-makers; district-level government officers; leaders in churches and other non-government organisations who wish to establish or expand schools with government support; and community leaders with similar objectives at the local level.

The Author

Mark Bray is a research scholar at the Centre of Asian Studies of the University of Hong Kong. He has taught in self-help schools in Kenya and Nigeria, and conducted research into community management and financing of education in Papua New Guinea. Before taking up his present post, he lectured at the University of London Institute of Education. He has travelled widely in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

The Artist

Meshack Asare is Ghanaian, and has become well known as an author and illustrator of children's books. He has won many prizes for his books, including the 1983 NOMA award for his book *The Brassman's Secret*, which the adjudicators considered the best book of any kind published in Africa in 1983, and the 1985 Golden Plaque for illustrations in his book *The Cat who Wanted a Friend*. He is presently living and working in London.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE